A STUDY OF THE ROLE OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPAL

by

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A Study of the Role of the Elementary School Principal

Introduction

Those who work in education must frequently be amazed at the range of tasks performed by the principal of any elementary school. He must oversee the operation of the building, supervise all levels of personnel in the school, and deal with pressures from above and below him in the educational heirarchy (the man in the middle) as well as from the community. He must cope with the countless petty matters that come to his attention by default, since he is the only person in the school who has the authority to do so. One must wonder how he finds the time to be an educational leader.

The principal occupies a legal-formal position in the educational heirarchy. His functions in Ontario are mandated by law, and in some cases by board policy. It may be that too much is required of principals in our schools, especially the elementary schools, and that the burden of these requirements causes principals to spend less than an adequate amount of time performing certain functions. Secondary schools usually have one or more vice-principals, business managers, and a secretarial staff to whom certain duties may be delegated. Large elementary schools may have one or more vice-principals, but one usually finds no business assistant, and fewer clerical workers. Smaller elementary schools may have only the principal and a part-time secretary. Principals of such schools find fewer opportunities to delegate the required duties to other persons. These principals must shoulder the entire spectrum of mandated functions. One

feels that the multiplicity of required duties spreads the principal rather thinly, inasmuch as it is difficult for one person to be expert in all areas.

Statement of the Problem

Given that a principal is required to perform a number of functions, the purpose of this study is to determine the relative amount of overall time spent in the performance of each function, the important component tasks of each function, as identified by the principal, the amount of satisfaction gained from the performance of said tasks and functions, and the kind of specialized assistance most needed by elementary school principals. In addition, selected variables will be considered. These are: the board for which a principal works, school size (enrolment), the kind of school, experience, and the availability of assistants, chiefly vice-principals.

Rationale

As will be noted in the following chapter, it is felt that in the United States the principal is spending more and more time in business and support management functions, and less time in educational leadership. A general reason for carrying out this study, therefore, is to examine the state of the principalship in Canada, or more specifically, in Southern Ontario, to see if the same thing is happening here.

The study will attempt to determine whether or not certain functions prescribed for the elementary principal are being given precedence over others. Measures of the time principals spend in performing certain functions, and measures of satisfaction, may lend insight into the way in which elementary principals cope with the legal requirements of the job.

Measures of the kinds of needed assistance may provide further insights into the direction in which the principalship is moving.

Some Definitions

In the chapters to follow, certain terms will be used frequently. These are defined herein:

Function: a general category consisting of several related component tasks.

Task: a specific job assigned to or demanded of a person.

Educational leadership: acts of leading in matters of an educational nature, such as curriculum planning, implementation, evaluation and revision, or evaluating and improving teacher proficiency.

Instructional leadership: (see Educational Leadership)

Managerial or administrative tasks: tasks which (for a principal) deal with the routine day-to-day operation of a school.

Reference groups: groups of persons who interact in some way with a role incumbent in a social setting.

Building manager: one who manages the routine functions (in education) of a school.

Educational programme: the curriculum and implementing of curriculum in a school.

Instructional development: the development of teaching proficiency in staff by improving old techniques or devising new strategies.

Curricular Development: the planning, construction, implementation, evaluation and revision of the programme of studies for children.

Non-certified Personnel: people (in schools) not qualified to teach, such as custodians, paraprofessionals, cafeteria workers, etc.

Business Administration: a function that includes any tasks related to finance, supply, and general office work.

Personnel Management: a function that includes any tasks related to dealings with any personnel in a school.

Change and Innovation: a function that includes any tasks of a speculative-creative nature.

School-Community Relations: a function that includes any tasks dealing with the community at large.

The Study

In subsequent chapters, the study will consist of the following: a review of some relevant literature; the conceptual framework, the research questions and hypotheses, and the design upon which the study is constructed; the results of the study; a discussion of the results; and the conclusions and implications drawn from the results.

Chapter Two

A Review of Some Relevant Literature

Introduction

In any consideration of the principalship, one is struck by the multiplicity of roles performed by the principal, and by external forces acting upon the role incumbent. It is also readily apparent that the role is not static, but has changed considerably over the years, and is still doing so. This review will consider, therefore, the historical development of the modern principal, his duties (and the time he spends performing them), and the present state of imbalance among the various duties set for the principal. The review will also consider desirable roles and/or tasks and duties for principals according to various authors, and how the principal can behave in order to perform the most desirable functions.

The Historical Perspective

As schools and school systems evolved from one-room schoolhouses to complex systems containing many schools, with grade differentiation and a greater degree of vertical administrative organization, so have the functions of the principal changed to keep pace. Wilson (1975) reviewed the development of the modern principal, citing the findings of various authors mentioned in the following paragraph.

At the turn of the century, Pierce stated that principals had been slow to carry out new functions, and that most had been satisfied to attend to clerical functions and petty routine--to administrate by laissez-faire. As time passed and enrolments increased, stated Pierce,

the principal functioned more as a coordinator of the efforts of people under him, integrating the school as a whole, keeping in touch with outside agencies, and devoting attention to professional improvement and progressive programmes. By the 1950's, according to Reavis, as well as Drummond, Goodlad and Spain, the principal exercised a positive influence on the professional development of staff. In the 1960's Corbally, Jenson, and Staub, as well as Stewart and Stanavage, named educational leadership as the principal's true function in which he must work to improve instruction and curriculum. At the same time, Cronior warned that principals must veer toward educational leadership, for if the present trend continued, they would become building managers. McNally countered Cronior by stating that educational leadership was outdated and inappropriate for principals.

There the problem stands for the 1970's. Wilson's review gives the reader a brief insight into the principal and his development from clerical worker to coordinator to staff developer to educational leader. He also underlines the present dilemma. Is the principal an educational leader, or should he function as a building manager? To answer the question, one must examine present practices of incumbent principals.

The Duties of the Principal

In order to see how comprehensive the role of the principal is, one needs to examine the tasks and duties he performs. At the same time, present practices in the role of the principal can be established.

Authors tend to group principals' tasks into general categories. Jones (1971), Cuttitta (1975), the Ohio Association of Elementary School

Principals (1971), Rock and Hemphill (1966), Snyder (1976), McCleary (1971), Hellweg (1973), Melton (1971), and the Georgia State Department of Education (Project R.O.M.E.) (1974), all identified the improvement of the educational programme or instructional and curricular development as a major task area, while Nostrand (1973) referred to the headmaster as an "educational enthusiast." Jones (1971), Cuttitta (1975), McCleary (1971), Hellweg (1973), Melton (1971), and Project R.O.M.E. (1974) judged selection and development of personnel to be an important task. McCleary (1971) and the Ohio Association of Elementary School Principals (1971) added staff morale or climate to the foregoing. The Ohio Association of Elementary School Principals (1971), Nostrand (1973), Rock and Hemphill (1966), Snyder (1976), and Melton (1971) found supervision of instruction or evaluation to be a necessary duty, to which Snyder (1976) added supervision of non-certified personnel. School-community relations was selected as a principal responsibility by Jones (1971), the Ohio Association of Elementary School Principals (1971), Snyder (1976), McCleary (1971), Hellweg (1973), Melton (1971), and Project R.O.M.E. (1974). School management, organization and structure, or clerical duties were identified by Jones (1971), Cuttitta (1975), the Ohio Association of Elementary School Principals (1971), Snyder (1976), McCleary (1971), Hellweg (1973), Melton (1971), and Project R.O.M.E. (1974). Snyder (1976) added duties assigned by the superintendent to these. Another important area of responsibility is student discipline, guidance and progress, as selected by the Ohio Association of Elementary School Principals (1971), Rock and Hemphill (1966), McCleary (1971), Hellweg (1973), Project R.O.M.E. (1974), and Snyder (1976). The last major duty mentioned by Nostrand (1973), Snyder (1976), McCleary (1971), Hellweg (1973)

and Project R.O.M.E. (1974), is financial management.

To these, Nostrand (1973) added the roles of change facilitator, decision co-ordinator, and communicator, although these are actually skills or strategies which a principal might employ. Also, Project R.O.M.E. (1974) mentioned system-wide policies and operations, although it is apparent by frequent omission that this duty is not common to all school districts.

Ellis (1972) stated that the role of the principal may be envisioned as a "conceptual framework of skills." These, Ellis continued, were categorized by Downey as:

1. technical-managerial skills (business management);
2. human-managerial skills (personnel management);
3. technical-educational skills (curriculum development); and
4. speculative-creative skills (change and innovation).

It is apparent in the literature that this conceptual framework embodies most of the functions identified by the various authors, with the exception of school-community relations, which Ellis himself mentioned as an addendum to the expanding role of the principal.

Some authors have attempted to describe the component tasks performed within the aforementioned functions. However, the number of described tasks varies from 10, according to one author, to 121 according to another. Obviously, what some authors identify as tasks are somewhat more comprehensive than those of other writers. The Ohio Association of Elementary School Principals (1971) published a list of eighteen duties in Minimum Standards for Elementary Schools, Revised 1970 (see Appendix A) ranging from making and filing accurate records and reports, to reading professional literature. McCleary (1971) found by interview procedure that principals perform fifty-two major tasks, falling into twelve task areas in four categories (see Appendix A). These range from managing auxiliary

services such as the cafeteria or transportation (management category), to carrying out research and development projects involving innovation, change, and investigating and testing new techniques (programme category). Heller (1975) listed scheduling, budgeting, working with community groups, motivating staff, working with students, instructional leadership, supervising classrooms, attending meetings, communicating with the public, developing transportation routes, developing rules for attendance, health and safety, placing students, reporting to parents, ordering supplies, and providing a proper image, as tasks for the principal. Dols (1974) said that the principal is concerned with instruction, but also budgeting, scheduling, supplies, teacher evaluation, negotiations, facilities, student behaviour and activities, parents, transportation, etcetera. Rock and Hemphill (1966) reported data from 4,500 junior high school principals in the United States, collected during the 1964-65 school year by questionnaire. They reported some eighteen activities of principals during a "typical" week (see Appendix A). These ranged from correspondence to meetings with teachers regarding curriculum and instruction matters. Baehr (1975) reported data from the Job Functions Inventory for School Principals, administered to a national sample of principals, 619 of whom responded. They listed seventeen functions in four categories, such as individual student development and dealing with gangs (see Appendix A). Fredriksson (1974) found, in a study of 81 principals, eleven behaviour categories (see Appendix A), such as office work and conferences. Cuttitta (1975) described fifty-one administrative behaviours of urban principals, grouped according to Griffith's decision-making theory, collected during the fall of 1973 and the spring of 1974 (see Appendix A). These included organizing a self-contained classroom on the secondary school level (educational programme), observing lessons taught by teachers (staff development), involving parental co-operation in improving a

child's conduct in school (conflict resolution), and publishing a calendar of daily events (school management). Of the fifty-one behaviours, less than 1% dealt with educational programme, 9% were staff development behaviours, 16% were conflict resolution behaviours, and 74% were school management behaviours. Paus (1970) cited Wright, who listed ten duties, such as assistance with curriculum revision and conferences with parents, and Jarret, who named six duties (or duty categories) such as administration of the educational programme, and community relations. In somewhat more minute detail, Wilson & Smith (1974) identified 100 variables in periodicals, and 121 variables, in six categories, in books published between 1970 and 1973, while analyzing books and journal articles for functions of the principal (see Appendix A).

However authors have chosen to detail the functions and tasks of a principal is immaterial. The salient feature of all this literature is that a principal's duties are legion and widely varied. In general, it may be stated that the role of the principal includes tasks in the areas of business management, personnel management, curriculum development, change and innovation, and school-community relations. All specific tasks listed in this section will fit into one of these functions. The role is so comprehensive that one wonders how one person could possibly have sufficient time or expertise to handle all the tasks, as noted by Mintzberg (1973) and Wolcott (1973).

Time Expenditures in Principal Tasks

It is insufficient to list the tasks and functions of the principal without also considering time. How principals spend their time is crucial, for time is the reality of the principal's role. If the principal is spending much time in management tasks, he may be a building manager. If, however, he spends more time in educational functions, then he may be an educational leader.

It may be worth noting that Mintzberg (1973) stated that the manager's

activities are characterized by brevity, variety, and fragmentation - wherein the trivial are mixed with the consequential. He further stated that managers show a preference for brevity and interruption, thus risking a tendency toward superficiality in their activities. In schools, principals are the middle managers in the sense that they are in charge of the school, and therefore their activities may be characterized in the same manner as those of Mintzberg's managers. Mintzberg also pointed out that the manager's (principal's) job is never finished, since there is always something else to be done, or improved upon, given sufficient available time.

Hemphill, Richards and Peterson (1966) found that high school principals spent the most time in administrative planning and meeting with students, while curriculum and instruction ranked fourth. Rock and Hemphill (1966) reported that junior high school principals spent 12% or less of their time in classroom visitations. Bevan (1973) warned that if more than 20% of the principal's time is spent in pursuits other than curriculum and teacher improvement, then he, like most principals, is spending too little time in the work for which he was trained and certified. Ellis (1972) cited Cross and Bennett, who reported that principals spent more than 40% of their time in business management. Mintzberg (1973) found that managers spend 78% of their time, and perform 67% of their activities, in verbal interaction.

A number of studies report time expenditures in various categories. Melton (1971) described a study done in Wayne County, Michigan (not including Detroit) in 1958, and replicated in San Diego County, California (not including San Diego) in 1968, in which randomly selected principals rated various categories of the principal's role according to time spent, actually and ideally. The two studies show remarkable consistency, considering the time and geographic differences. Of the six categories rated, Melton reported two interesting

findings: (a) both studies showed a 9% to 14% gap between the actual and ideal time spent in curriculum and instructional leadership, with actual time being lower; (b) both studies indicated principals spent more than double the ideal time in actually carrying out administrative responsibility (see Appendix A).

Project R.O.M.E. (1974) rated time expenditures in seven categories for principals in six schools. Among other findings, the project findings show principals spending 1% (10 minutes daily) on curriculum and instruction, and 52% (over 3 hours daily) on support management, and miscellaneous and unclassified activities (see Appendix A).

Rock and Hemphill (1966) reported data from 4,500 junior high school principals in the United States collected by questionnaire during the 1964-65 school year. They report some eighteen activities of the principal during a "typical" week, and the percentage of time spent at each. Approximately 26% of the principals' time was spent in administrative activities, while an average of 10% was spent in activities related to curriculum and instruction (see Appendix A).

Fredriksson (1974) gathered data from eighty-one principals who, by self-observation, reported time consumption in eleven categories. It was noted that administrative behaviours required a mean time expenditure of 49.98, while leadership behaviours received a mean time expenditure of 33.23 (see Appendix A).

Paus (1970) cited Jarret, who found that principals performed six types of duties for various percentages of time. According to his findings, principals spent 25% of their time in educational programme work, and only 8% in school management. However, he also found they spent 45% of their time in student personnel services (see Appendix A).

Nostrand (1973) reported the results of a questionnaire to headmasters in which they indicated comparative time expenditure preferences. Among others,

improving instruction, evaluating and meeting staff needs ideally required more time than they were presently spending, while routines should receive much less time.

The literature on time utilization appears to indicate that curriculum and instructional leadership duties are receiving less attention from principals than other matters. It is also apparent that the chief time consumers are administration (routine, business management duties) and student personnel matters (counselling and disciplinary duties). It is interesting that principals expressed a desire (Melton and Nostrand) to spend more time in educational matters, and less in administrative duties. If that is so, what are the organizational and individual phenomena which exist to develop this incongruence between desired and actually performed tasks in terms of time?

The Imbalance in Principal Roles

As noted previously, concern has been expressed over the imbalance in time spent in the divergent functions of instructional leadership and administration, pertaining to the principalship. It is necessary, therefore, to establish which of the two functions is preferable for principals.

Wiggins (1970) stated, citing Lipham, that leadership and administration are incompatible, since to lead means taking new steps, while to administer means maintaining, restoring the stability of, and perpetuating that which exists. He added that some districts were moving from a vaguely defined leadership role for the principal to the role of effective administrator, who would clarify the purposes of, co-ordinate, and obtain resources for the organization. Goldsborough et al (1971) said that the principal needs role clarification, plus reassurance and confirmation that his prime role is that of educational leader, not business manager, since many feel frustrated by being spread too thinly while coping with non-educational matters. Becker et al (1971) found that, while principals are

concerned with the imbalance between managerial and educational leadership responsibilities, they may avoid the latter because of inadequate skills or ineffective, "old style," managerial orientation programmes.

The concensus of many authors is that educational leadership is the primary function of the principal, while the time spent in administrative functions ought to be sharply downgraded. Barraclough (1973) supported this concensus with the following citations by several other authors. It is difficult for principals to be expert in all subjects, instructional practices, organizational management, building maintenance, equipment selection, community relations, etcetera (Arrends & Essig). It is too much to expect the principal to be master of all (Jarvis et al). The principal is vacillating between emphasizing his role as instructional leader and his role as administrator (Melton). In any new definition of the principalship, the role should be that of instructional leader (Brown) (Southworth) (Greer). Deciding between the roles of educational innovator and plant manager is the first step in reducing ambiguity in the principal's role (Becker et al).

Clement (1969) and Pharis (1975) found an imbalance between the managerial and educational responsibilities of principals, with insufficient time available for the latter. Houts (1975) reported that it was the concensus of the participants at the Belmont Conference that the principal should exercise more educational leadership and spend less time on housekeeping and managerial duties. At present, principals are swamped with administrative duties, a situation which detracts from the educational leadership role. McNally (1975) essentially agreed, and cited Goldhammer who had commented wryly on the necessity of a master's degree for a person ordering toilet paper. Higley (1974) also agreed, but added that some people claim that the principal is only a manager who facilitates the operation of the school on a routine day-to-day basis.

It is very apparent that, in the eyes of the cited authors, principals ought to be educational leaders, not just building managers. In view of the pressures of numerous duties and time constraints, this may be difficult. Mintzberg (1973) reported that managers must find and process a significant amount of information, as well as perform a number of "housekeeping duties." He stated that the pressures of the managerial environment do not encourage reflective planners in managerial roles, but rather information manipulators, who prefer an environment of stimulus-response. The next section of this review will deal with ways in which a principal could be freed from administrative duties in order to become an educational leader.

The Principal - An Educational Leader

Many aspects of the role of principal must now be considered. One must consider the management style most appropriate for the principal, his collegiality with teachers, how he might behave effectively, what leadership roles he should assume, and how he might overcome the heavy demands made upon his time by other duties. If these can be clearly shown, one should then be able to define a model role for the principal.

Afton (1974) outlined three management styles for principals: (a) a punishment-centered style in which the principal is concerned with procedure, is inflexible, and makes decisions arbitrarily, capriciously, and infrequently; (b) Country Club Management, in which the principal is most concerned with his image, and neglects matters which eventually catch up with him; (c) Participatory Management, which, as it involves staff, is not easy, since the principal must understand the delicate balances of social, political and educational forces in the school. Swift (1974) described five role styles for principals: (a) the Administrator, who focuses on the smooth operation of the whole enterprise as a problem in logistics--ordering, supplying, integrating, and

evaluating--is especially good for large and new schools; (b) the Public Relations Man, who spends much time with parents in prosperous neighbourhoods or areas undergoing change; (c) the Disciplinarian, who uses force to get student order and control; (d) the Entertainer, who seeks the voluntary co-operation of students and makes the school enjoyable by palatable learning and extracurricular and cocurricular activities; (e) the Educator, who centres his interest in the classroom and in improving teacher competence, but can only function when other pressures are minimal, as in small schools in stable areas. Chung (1970) proposed a highly teacher-centered management style for principals as a meaningful strategy for humanization and improvement of effectiveness of educational organizations. This is characterized by participative decision making, less administrative routine work imposed on teachers, avoidance of tight supervision, supportive behaviour for the professional growth of teachers, much personal, considerate relationship with teachers, and accessibility of the principal to teachers.

The principal is frequently the man in the middle, considered by some reference groups, such as superintendents, as a manager, but by teachers as one of their number. Brown (1970) said that a principal should work with teachers, not they for him. McNally (1975) asked for a redefinition of the authority responsibility structure, so that the principal, even as a line officer, could maintain collegiality with teachers, and perform a staff function as well. Goldstein (1975) pointed out that in Israel, even with his high positional status, the principal is also considered by teachers as part of the staff, while inspectors disagree, considering him as a middle manager. However, he pointed out that school leadership is a function of the group, with the principal as conductor, not soloist.

Principal effectiveness, which has been discussed by many authors, is

indeed an important element when one considers leadership style. McGowan (1976) defined synergy as the co-operative interaction of the various elements in a system. The gains of co-operative action are greater than the sum of the independent efforts of the separate elements. As such, the principal should indeed be the conductor. According to Tye (1970), the principal, with teachers, can adequately define goals, while the principal serves as a monitor of instructional decisions, a provider of effective settings, and a transactional agent between decision makers. Brown (1970) and Houts (1975) said that principals must share the responsibility of decision making. Afton (1974) pointed out that the effectiveness of the principal depends on how he performs in the light of different expectations of major reference groups. Horowitz et al (1969) said that the principal should attempt to develop a climate in the school which tends to increase areas of agreement and decrease areas of disagreement between teachers and himself. Goldstein (1975) reported that an Israeli principal is considered worthy if he has good relations with his staff. Ellis (1972) suggested the application of Nelson's skill strategy domain, in order to translate principal skills into action.

1. Control strategy applies to the management activities that one undertakes to regulate a programme or affairs which are part of the organizational function.
2. Implementive strategy refers to the direction of one's effort toward those things which help expedite, fulfill and complete the operations of the organization.
3. Evaluation strategy involves the analysis and assessment of activities designed to meet goals and procedures.
4. Developmentive strategy is the exercise of creative talent and imagination in generating ideas, formulating propositions, and planning approaches that may result in improved

performance.

Certain functions have been described as leadership activities for principals. Drummond (1970) said that the principal should be the chief innovator, instructional leader, and a good person, as too often children see the principal performing custodial or disciplinary functions. Higley (1974) cited Becker, who described the exemplary principal as one who worked well with teachers, delegated authority, worked for change, cut district red tape to accomplish meaningful goals, and was not afraid to take risks. The Georgia State Department of Education (1974) in Project R.O.M.E. listed six administrative behaviours for principals, which are: collecting information, planning, communicating, decision making, implementing, and evaluating. Pharis (1975) stated that the principal makes policy happen, turning it into learning for children. Teachers need support, reinforcement, and the opportunity to use all the knowledge and skill they possess. The principal co-ordinates and orchestrates the activities of the entire educational community. He is in the middle where the action is--interpreting, arbitrating, instigating, co-ordinating, resolving, and converting friction into motion. Swick and Driggers (1975) said that the principal can be the focal point for curriculum planning. He acquires feedback from interested groups (parents and citizens), observes at first hand the curriculum in action in the classroom, listens to teachers who implement, and students for whom the curriculum was designed, and acquires input from educational leaders such as curriculum directors, superintendents, and leaders at the regional and national level. He is in a position to assist in all curriculum matters--consulting, planning and evaluating. Carter (1975) stated that the principal is responsible for educational leadership, but may have to circumvent massive educational bureaucracies to actually lead. Also, although he is given authority--a legal formal position which increases his prestige and

credibility for his opinions and beliefs--he must earn the image of expert to gain public approval for educational programmes. He is in a position of influence which could be used to unite factions composed of various individuals and groups interested in education into a powerful alliance for effecting positive change. Swift (1975) said that the principal, with the image of principal teacher with professional training, and powers and responsibilities delegated by the board, should oversee the instructional programme, suggest improvements, and evaluate teaching performance. Houts (1975) said that a leader is necessary to mobilize resources and achieve ends. He pointed out that industry has noted that autonomy breeds dynamic leadership, but that the central office often prevents school autonomy. According to Afton (1974), the principal should be given the responsibility with staff to develop curriculum, to evaluate teacher performance, to criticize constructively techniques and methods, to perceive any deficiencies and rectify them, to defend the programme to the community, and to build a sensible budget for the school. Helweg (1973) stated that leadership places more emphasis on the co-ordination and management of groups of teachers in the areas of curriculum planning, selecting materials, and budgeting. She added that there should be increased involvement of teaching personnel in decision making with regard to supervision of instruction, and that effective interpersonal relations between elementary school principals and staffs have important positive consequences for the quality of the educational programme in a school. Greabell (1975) added to the two primary responsibilities, administration and supervision, the role of facilitator, so that the adult human potential of the teaching staff can be honestly exhibited, truly accepted, and fully used. To do this, he recommended COPE--communication, openness, personal interaction and enhancement. The principal should develop a good communication system to have principal-teacher or teacher-teacher communication, to clarify,

modify, or redefine philosophy, purpose and objectives, and provide peer feedback. Openness is needed, which, while it may be painful, can have long term effects which are humane and productive, if it is supportive and non-threatening. The principal must commit himself to caring, so that the potential for meaningful interaction is better. This may be mutually satisfying, but the risk of being hurt is intensified. Enhancement occurs when teachers are not embarrassed or mistrustful of those offering praise and encouragement, and are not apprehensive about expressing their own positive feelings to others. Goldstein (1975) lists the following leadership roles for Israeli principals:

a) the principal determines the character of the school, more than others;

b) he is responsible for creating an educational atmosphere and determining the educational policy in the school;

c) he organizes and administrates most of the time;

d) he guides teachers, since he knows all subjects;

e) he evaluates teachers, and keeps track of their performance;

f) he is responsible for discipline and good order;

g) he gains authority from his knowledge of school conditions and special needs;

h) he extends his authority to applying the general curriculum to the school's needs, to exercising flexibility in allocating time and money, and to interpreting Ministry of Education instructions in accordance with the needs of the school.

Perhaps a special function for the principal is that of change agent. Barraclough (1973) cited Yonemura, who said that the principal must act as a

change agent to be effective, and Mahan, who named the principal and subject specialists as the most influential change agents. He also quoted Meiskin who stated that the principal should involve teachers in the change process, to impart a sense of belonging and sharing in the decision-making processes leading to the acceptance, modification, or rejection of change. Houts (1975) stated that the principal is the key to change, since change (reforming educational matters) requires effective leadership. According to Tye (1970) the school is the most strategic unit for educational change, and the principal, therefore, is the most effective change agent. To be a change agent, the principal should assess strengths and weaknesses, be aware of conflicting role expectations by significant others, be aware of the components of effective leadership, and understand the change process. He should be cosmopolitan (since looking outside is common to all innovators), efficient in group dynamics, have a background in administrative theory, and be conversant with research literature. Higley (1974), citing Hoban, warned that a principal cannot be a change agent in instruction, because of his authoritarian with teachers, and is thus, by nature, committed to the status quo. However, Drummond (1970) stated that the principal can be the single most effective individual in the heirarchy in effecting change. He has both the opportunity and the obligation to change the school, but to do so, he needs openness, and must make the staff clear on the issues. Dols (1974) said that the role of the principal is that of change agent, since his function is to improve instruction by changing teacher behaviour, to improve teaching.

Finally, one must consider the ways in which the principal could find the time to perform the functions seen as desirable by the foregoing authors. Chief among these are time management, delegation of duties, and differentiated staffing, management by objectives, and conflict resolution.

Gray (1975) stated that principals must effectively manage their time.

Clement (1969) had elaborated on this point. The principal should (a) establish priorities; (b) plan the day, week, month and year, and have appropriate resources ready; (c) co-ordinate his time schedule with others; (d) be accessible; (e) have the secretary know his whereabouts, and screen calls; (f) establish communication lines, with handbooks, etc.; and (g) prepare forms for speeding up correspondence.

A previously-mentioned problem in finding sufficient time to be a leader is the continuous stream of administrative trivia which piles up on the principal's desk. McNally (1975) and Houts (1975) said the principal should decide what must be handled by himself, and delegate the rest, to leave himself free to exercise leadership. Clement (1969) provided the orderly steps for principal delegation:

(a) list all tasks, and whether they were defined by policy or conceived by himself as part of the role;

(b) categorize tasks as general, personnel, pupil, programme, business administration, and public relations;

(c) check those tasks that no one else can do;

(d) delegate other tasks equitably, placing the responsibility for decision-making at the lowest point where information and expertise exist to do the job well;

(e) delegate major responsibilities to top assistants who can handle them in such a way as to complement the principal's abilities;

(f) always delegate to expertise, not just to avoid the unpleasant, remembering that decision-making goes with the delegation of authority.

Barraclough (1973) noted that Arends and Essig suggested the employment of a curriculum associate as a form of differential staffing. However, this would

tend to relieve the principal of some leadership functions. Paus (1970) stated that, if the principal is expected to be an instructional leader and play an increasingly larger role in school-community relations, then other details must be delegated to the vice principal. Snyder (1976) said that the role of principal is becoming too comprehensive and that a new role is needed to give the principal assistance in management duties. He added that such duties should be delegated to the vice principal and secretaries to allow the principal to become an instructional leader. Goldstein (1975) also stated that (in Israel) administrative staffs are needed to share the principal's complex administrative load. Goldsborough et al (1971) cited Fraser (1971) who said that instructional matters should be given to the principal (head teacher), while other duties are given to assistants specially trained to manage. They also cited Trump of N.A.S.S.P., who proposed the utopian situation in which the principal spent 75% of his time in instructional matters, having been relieved of other duties by a building administrator, personnel administrator, external relations director, and activities director, with no resultant reduction in the number of vice principals.

Goldsborough et al (1971) also described the following actual situations:

a) Winnipeg School Division No. 1 - All ten high schools had administrative assistants to relieve the principal and teachers of routine tasks not directly associated with the educational programme. With a salary range of $7,500 to $9,100 (1971), the administrator was not required to have any special background, although a working knowledge of accounting and office management was considered desirable. The administrator spent one-third of his time in finance, and the rest in other areas such as supplies, repairs, texts, lunchroom, audiovisual equipment, special projects such as concerts, and breakins.

b) Peterborough, Ontario - Here a business assistant was hired for $6,500 to $8,500 (1971) to manage the school office and secretaries. The

assistant worked on budget, requisitions, buses, special uses of facilities, cafeteria, student services (such as texts and insurance), and reports (such as attendance reports).

c) London, Ontario - A business assistant was hired for $8,000 to $10,000 (1971) to handle budget, equipment and supplies, secretarial staff (through the head secretary), equipment and furniture inventories, breakins, requisitions, statistical reports, staff absence reports, liaison with the board's business administrator, parking fees, insurance, requests, rentals, lockers, etcetera.

d) Etobicoke, Ontario - This borough of Toronto had administrative assistants, but they are gone now because of cost cutting.

e) Ten years ago, a large Ontario board (unnamed) hired a business assistant, but the principal refused to have him in the school.

It would, therefore, seem that having a business assistant in the school would do much for relieving the principal of routine non-educational matters, and for allowing him to spend more time on instruction and programme. This alternative is not without problems, as noted in part (e) above. Perhaps that principal would have been at a loss as to what to do in his school. Also, the whole question of delegation must be viewed carefully, since the principal is ultimately responsible for his school. Hellweg (1973) warned that the principal is held responsible for student accomplishment and learning. Also, Higley (1974) citing Hoban, stated that principals are reluctant to delegate authority because of their own accountability. Furthermore, Mintzberg (1973) claimed that it is hard for managers to delegate, since, although they have unique access to much important information, they lack the formal, efficient means of disseminating it. In effect, they have neither the time nor the means to send along necessary information.

Some claim that management by objectives (M.B.O.) is a management tool that can improve leadership. Garvey (1975) said that a school improves when

desired learner outcomes are more and more defensible to students and citizens, and that if each year a greater number of students achieve daily success in school, then teachers and students find school a more satisfying place to be. If principal tasks are to improve teacher competency, counsellor effectiveness, and vice-principal performance, then one must write objectives to achieve these which are attainable, challenging, realistic, worthy, relevant, financially feasible, and measurable. Coats (1975) reported that in Kalamazoo, Michigan, ratings on objectives are used to encourage sound management, and for merit pay. All reference groups participate in the ratings. Keim (1975) reported the same technique in Pennridge School District, Pennsylvania, being used to get people working toward common goals. M.B.O. improved building management, leaving more time for the principal to be involved in curriculum and educational leadership. In Pennridge, they felt that, without M.B.O., they were resigned to principals being building managers. Gray (1975) also stated that the role of instructional leader was enhanced by performance appraisal of mutually agreed upon goals, where the appraiser has a helping role. He warned that one cannot manage by objectives. Rather, the emphasis should be on management for the accomplishment of objectives.

Finally, it appears that another substantial time expenditure is directed toward conflict resolution. Cuttitta (1975) said that principals are often called upon to settle disputes, and cited Griffiths who postulated that too many conflict resolution (appellate) decisions indicate rampant organizational conflicts, perhaps created by the administrator, which must be handled to the detriment of the long range goals of the organization. Cuttitta (1975) also reported a study of decisions rendered by forty New York City school principals over forty days. He predicted that students would have low reading scores if the principal's major emphasis was on appellate and intermediary (school management) decisions, rather than creative (educational programme and staff development) decisions.

Ninety per cent of the decisions made by the forty principals were appellate or intermediary, while only ten per cent were creative. Thirty-five of the forty schools reported more than 55% of their students below the grade norm in reading, and twenty-four of the schools reported that 70% of their students were reading below the grade norm. Principals spent 74% of their time making intermediary decisions, and 16% of their time making appellate decisions. Sayan et al (1970) said that a principal may work to avoid conflict by eliminating it. McGowan (1976) stated that the principal should use personal or normative power, not positional power, to bring about less conflict.

In review, one is drawn particularly to the statement made by Becker, cited by Higley (1974). The exemplary principal works well with teachers, delegates authority, works for change, cuts district red tape to accomplish meaningful goals, and is not afraid to take risks. The principal must be an educational leader who uses a participatory, teacher-centered, leadership style, with appropriate autonomy from the school board. He must recognize the need for, and work for, change, along with his staff. To carry out his most important functions, he must learn to manage his time expenditures, and use vice principals, secretaries, and business managers as personnel who can relieve him of responsibilities that may interfere with his primary function--leadership. School boards must support principals in these endeavours, particularly in seeing the principal as an educational leader, not a manager, and by providing appropriate personnel resources in the form of administrative assistants.

In spite of all the things that a principal might do to become an educational leader, nothing will happen if the principal does not derive satisfaction from the performance of this aspect of his role. In the next section, some literature pertaining to role satisfaction will be examined.

Satisfaction

In this final section of the review of literature, the pertenance of satisfaction to the role of the principal must be examined. In order to do so, theoretical and empirical literature was reviewed.

Getzels and Guba (1968) stated that organizational behaviour results from the interaction of the expectations of others with one's own needs and personality. McNally (1975) added that the expectations of reference groups often differ widely for principals. Eckel (1969) and Wiggins (1970), citing Merton, said that effective principal behaviour depends on the role, the incumbent's concept of the role, his need dispositions, and the expectations of various groups.

Getzels et al (1968) defined satisfaction as contentment, or the absence of role-personality conflicts, and further stated that satisfaction is a function of the congruence between individual needs and institutional expectations. Chung (1970) cited Libert, who said that for professional work, there is a positive relationship between job satisfaction and performance. Job performance reflects feelings of satisfaction regarding affiliation, acceptance, sense of personal worth and importance, power, and self-fulfillment. Brown (1973) cited Porter and Brown in stating that job satisfaction is directly related to the degree of power and influence the administrator can generate. Miskel (1975), in a study of 179 principals, 996 teachers, and 41 district level administrators, found that leader behaviour was slightly related to job satisfaction, but strongly related to subordinate and superordinate effectiveness.

It was previously noted (Wiggins, 1970) that leading meant taking new steps while administering meant perpetuating that which exists. Getzels et al (1968) stated that leading means initiating a structure in interaction with others, while following means maintaining a structure initiated by another. Leadership-followership is affected by two dimensions, the normative (institu-

tional expectations) dimension, and the idiographic (personal expectations) dimension. Behaviour in the normative dimension, according to Getzels et al, leads to effective behaviour; Barnard (1964) said that effectiveness related to the accomplishment of the co-operative purpose, which is social and non-personal in character. Behaviour in the idiographic dimension, according to Getzels et al, leads to efficient behaviour. Barnard had stated that efficiency is related to the satisfaction of individual motives, and is personal in nature.

Getzels et al (1968) continued in stating that organizational needs and personal needs rarely coincide, and that for this reason satisfaction is often less than maximum. Therefore the role incumbent must choose between maximum efficiency or maximum effectiveness. At times, the incumbent may choose high effectiveness even in the face of loss of efficiency, and thus gain a high level of production in an organization. However, this can only be done a great cost in psychic energy to the individual. Such production without satisfaction can be maintained for relatively short periods. Since this kind of effectiveness is frustrating, it is ultimately inefficient. The short periods of unsatisfying, effective behaviour are consistent with the finding's of Mintzberg (1973) wherein the manager showed signs of preferring brevity and interruption in his work, since many managerial activities are of a routine, "house-keeping" nature, and since the manager knows there are always other, often more important, things to do.

Finally, Getzels et al (1968) put forth a third style of leadership-followership - the transactional. In this style, the role incumbent minimizes or maximizes the normative or the idiographic dimensions as the situation requires. This style is essentially integrative, involving the socialization of personal needs, and personalization of the role. Wiggins (1971) agreed, and citing Guba,

stated that the principal mediates between the normative and personal dimensions to produce behaviour which is at once organizationally useful and individually satisfying. However, Wiggins also stated that as time spent in one school increased, a principal was gradually dominated more and more by school expectations. The suggestion is that, for principals, there is more chance of their personal needs being socialized than of the role being personalized for them.

In conclusion, it may be stated that principals must, of course, fulfill the requirements of the job in order to be considered effective, but must also seek satisfaction of their personal needs in order to perform efficiently. To satisfy both, principals may have to adopt a transactional style of leadership to produce both effective social behaviour. If a principal is going to lead (initiate structure in interaction with others), that behaviour must produce satisfaction on the normative and personal dimensions of his role behaviour. If it does not produce satisfaction, the likelihood of such an act continuing is small.

Conclusion

In the review, it has been noted that principals perform a great many tasks which may be grouped in five functions, summarized by Ellis (1972), citing Downey, as business administration, personnel management, educational programme, change and innovation, and school-community relations. Principals have been spending varying amounts of time in these five functions, but it is apparent that administrative functions take too much time, leaving too little for educational leadership functions. However, the majority of authors favour the leadership functions as the appropriate role of the principal.

Some authors have delineated solutions to the problem of effective educational leadership. Chief among these were appropriate leadership styles involving teachers in the leadership function, time management, and delegation

of administrative tasks. It was felt by many authors that if principals shared the responsibility of leadership with their teachers, managed their time more efficiently, and delegated administrative trivia to others, then principals would have more time to function as leaders. Failure to do so would result in principals being school administrators. Wiggins (1970) stated that the two functions (leadership and administration) are incompatible, since to lead means to take new steps, while to administer means to maintain and perpetuate that which exists. Most authors felt that, to lead, principals have to divest themselves of administrative functions as much as possible. Thus the development of administrative support systems in the form of ancillary personnel who would perform tasks which do not require the expertise of a principal was deemed a necessity. Finally, principal leadership behaviour must prove organizationally and personally satisfying so that such acts will be effective and efficient.

The following chapter will propose a conceptual framework, research questions and hypotheses, and methodology by which the role of the principal may be examined in the light of the literature reviewed in this chapter.

Chapter Three

Methodology

Introduction

In this chapter, the methodology for the study of the role of the elementary school principal will be presented. This will consist of the conceptual framework for the study, research questions and hypotheses, and the study design to be used.

Conceptual Framework

In the review of literature, it may be noted that the principalship was discussed from the viewpoint of functions and tasks, time expenditures in principal functions the imbalance between leadership and administrative duties, desirable leadership functions and role satisfaction. These form the framework for the study of elementary school principals in the "Golden Horseshoe" area of Ontario.

Ellis (1972), citing Downey, said that the role of the principal could be described as a conceptual framework of skills. The first group, technical-managerial skills, applies to business management. These skills include budgeting, office management, making reports, keeping records, ordering and dispensing supplies, and a host of others. The second group, human-managerial skills, applies to personnel management. These skills include supervising teachers, counselling students, dealing with students in disciplinary matters, supervising non-certified personnel (secretaries, custodians, etcetera), and supervising vice-principals. The third group, technical-educational skills, applies to curriculum matters. These skills include curriculum planning, revising, implementing, and evaluation, with or without support from central office personnel and teachers. The fourth group, speculative-creative skills,

applies to change and innovation. These skills include professional reading, attending in-service courses, carrying out studies within the school, and testing new techniques. To Downey's framework, Ellis added school-community relations. Although he did not elaborate, one would assume that political and communication skills would be needed. This study employed the Ellis-Downey system of categorizing the tasks which comprise the role of the principal. (See Figure 3.1)

It is apparent from the studies cited in chapter two by Melton (1971) and many others, that principals spend a great deal of time in business administration--from 26% to 40% of their available time. Paus (1970), citing Jarret, also noted a 45% time expenditure in pupil personnel work. At the same time, Project R.O.M.E. (1974) and many others, noted that educational leadership activities received lesser amounts of time--as little as 1%. This study considered time expenditures in the Ellis-Downey functions.

Since time expenditure is not necessarily a determinant of function or task importance, a variety of tasks in the five Ellis-Downey functions were rated for importance. Goldsborough (1971) and others mentioned that delegation of responsibility is one way in which the load and variety of functions performed by the principal could be lessened. Since Paus (1970) and Snyder (1976) both mentioned delegating tasks to the vice-principal, the time spent by principals in schools with vice-principals on various functions as compared to the time spent on the same functions in schools without vice-principals was considered. Also, since Afton (1974) brought up the question of differing role styles for different sizes of schools, enrollment was considered. Barraclough (1971) stated that business assistants could be employed, and that, citing Arrends and Essig, curriculum associates might be used to relieve principals of some of their workload. Therefore, assistants for principals were considered from the

point of view of principal choice.

Finally, satisfaction in performing the important principal tasks was tested. Getzels et al (1968) had made the point that performed tasks either produced personal satisfaction and thereby efficiency, or ultimately frustration. It was necessary, therefore, to consider satisfaction with principal tasks, to find what tasks principals prefer to carry out. In relation to this, years of experience as a principal, and as a principal in one school was tested for variations in satisfaction, since Wiggins (1971) stated that school expectations dominated principals more and more over a period of time.

The entire conceptual framework may be visualized as shown in Figure 3.1, which is an adaptation of part of the general model of the major dimensions of behaviour in a social system proposed by Getzels et al (1968), the model for three leadership-followership styles proposed by Getzels and Guba (1957), and the previously described Ellis-Downey framework. Given that the five functions are generally accepted as the functions of the principal, the principal must choose how much time to allot to each one. His choice may be affected by a number of institutional variables, to wit: school size, kind of school, vice-principal availability, and the employing board. His choice may also be affected by individual variables - his years of experience as a principal and his years of tenure in his present school. The principal may mediate between the role expectations of his particular organizational situation and his own personal need-dispositions, at one time choosing a normative course of action, while at another time following his own personal needs. At all times the principal attempts to maximize satisfaction, and thereby effectiveness and efficiency. The resulting transactional behaviour will determine the amount of time spent in any one function. It should not be inferred that a principal will always choose the same course of action, since institutional role expecta-

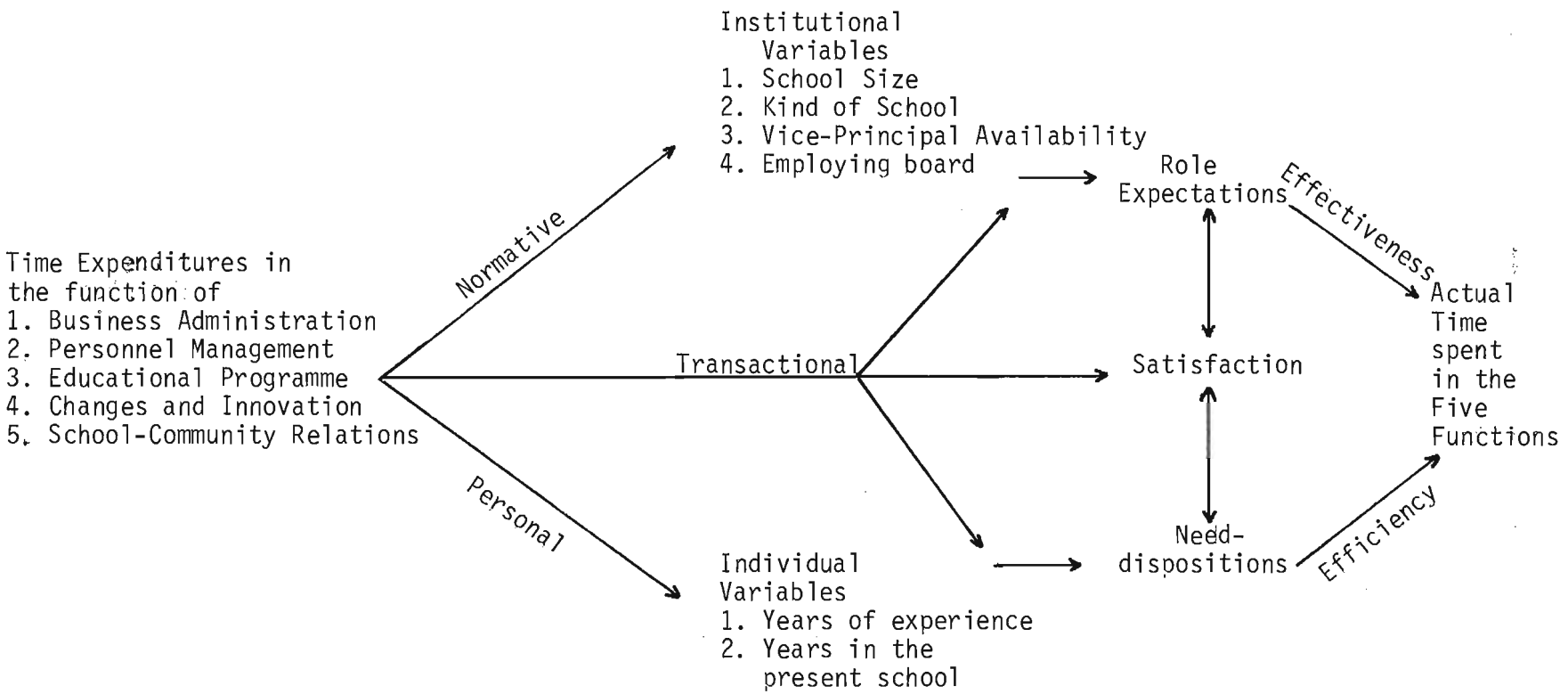


Figure 3.1: Conceptual Framework involving the effects of transactional leadership-followership and satisfaction on time expenditures in the five Ellis-Downey functions.

tions and personal needs may vary from one time to another. Nor should it be expected that each principal will choose in the same manner as another, since each has his own unique set of circumstances, both normative and personal.

This conceptual framework formed the base upon which the study was constructed. From it, a number of research questions and hypotheses were derived.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The research questions and hypotheses arising from the conceptual framework were divided into two parts: (a) questions and hypotheses stemming from considerations of time expenditures in the five functions, component task importance, school type (junior, composite, and senior or middle), school size (enrollment), and the availability of vice-principals; and (b) questions and hypotheses regarding satisfaction in the performance of important component tasks, choice of specialized assistant, experience, and tenure in one school.

Part A: The following questions were suggested by the conceptual framework. (1) How much time is spent by responding principals in each of the Ellis-Downey functions? (2) What effect does size of school or type of school have on principal time expenditures in the Ellis-Downey functions? (3) How does the presence of a vice-principal in a school affect principal time expenditures in the five functions? (4) What tasks in the five functions are seen as important by principals? Considering the literature, the following hypotheses were formulated. (1) Principals do not spend significantly more time in business administration than in any other function. (2) Principals do not spend significantly less time in educational programme matters than in either business administration or personnel management.

(3) Principals do not spend significantly less time in speculative - creative activities than in any other function. (4) Principals in the seven boards do not spend significantly different amounts of time in any of the five functions. (5) Principals in junior schools do not spend significantly less time in business administration than principals in composite or senior elementary schools. (6) Principals in junior schools do not spend more time in educational programme than principals in composite and senior elementary schools. (7) Principals of small schools do not spend significantly less time in business administration than principals of medium or large schools. (8) Principals of small schools do not spend significantly more time in educational programme than principals of medium or large schools. (9) Principals assisted by vice-principals do not spend less time in business administration and personnel administration and more time in educational programme than principals who work alone.

Part B: Also at issue in the conceptual framework are questions about satisfaction and specialized assistance. (1) What function gives responding principals the most satisfaction? (2) What function gives responding principals the least satisfaction? (3) How does time in the role of the principal affect the amount of satisfaction gained from the component tasks? (4) What support personnel are most desired by principals? (5) What significant correlations exist among (1) demographic and satisfaction variables, and (2) satisfaction variables? (6) What significant correlations are there between satisfaction means and time expenditures for the five functions? Considering the literature, the following hypotheses were formulated. (1) Principals do not derive significantly more satisfaction from educational programme and speculative-creative activities than any

others. (2) Principals do not derive the least satisfaction from business administration. (3) As time in the school and years of experience increase, principals are not more satisfied with management activities and less satisfied with educational leadership activities. (4) Principals do not choose support personnel to assume duties from which they derive the least satisfaction. (5) Principals in the seven boards do not derive significantly different amounts of satisfaction from the performance of any task. (6) Principals of small, medium, or large schools do not derive significantly different amounts of satisfaction from the performance of any task. (7) Principals of junior, composite, or senior schools do not derive significantly different amounts of satisfaction from the performance of any task.

To answer the questions and to consider the hypotheses, a study design was developed. Since questions of component task importance required solution before satisfaction could be tested, the study was designed and carried out in two parts.

Methodology

Part A: From lists of public elementary school principals in the counties of Peel, Halton, Wentworth, Brant, Lincoln, and Niagara South, and in the City of Hamilton, a random sample consisting of 20% of all names on the lists was chosen. Three categories were developed on a quota basis: (a) principals in junior schools, (b) principals in K to 8 schools, and (c) principals in middle or senior elementary schools. Each principal was sent a cover letter, Questionnaire A, and an addressed return envelope. (See Appendix B)

A key person was utilized in each jurisdiction to handle all mailings. The board's internal courier service was used, except in Brant

County, where direct mail was used because of strained relations between the board and its employees. If, according to the time line (see Appendix B), sufficient questionnaires were not returned, a follow-up letter (see Appendix B) and questionnaire were sent. If 75% of the first questionnaires were returned, that number was deemed to be sufficient, and the second mailing did not occur.

After Questionnaire A was returned, certain information was gathered. (1) Average time expenditures in the five functions was calculated, along with range and standard deviation. (2) Average time expenditures in the five functions were calculated for each board. (3) Mean time expenditures in the five functions were calculated for each kind of school, and broken down according to board. (4) Mean time expenditures in five functions were calculated for three school size ranges (small, medium, and large), and broken down according to board. (5) Mean time expenditures for kind of school and school size ranges were subjected to analysis of variance to test for significant differences. (6) Mean time expenditures for each board were subjected to analysis of variance, while time expenditures for principals by or unassisted by vice-principals, were subjected to chi-square analysis. (7) Where significance was found by either analysis of variance or chi-square analysis, t ratios or z scores were calculated. (8) A correlation matrix comparing time expenditures among the five functions was constructed. (9) The frequency of important task responses was recorded, and broken down by board. (10) Correlations comparing task importance and time expenditures in the five functions, broken down by board, were calculated.

All analyses of variance, chi-squares, t tests, z scores, and correlations were considered significant at the .05 level, or less.

Part B: Once the major component tasks had been determined from Questionnaire A, Questionnaire B was prepared (see Appendix B). The questionnaire tested responding principals for satisfaction with the 17 most important tasks (as identified by 40% or more of the respondents to Questionnaire A) on 6-point Likert scales. It also sought information from principals on years of experience as a principal, years of tenure as principal in the present school, school size, kind of school, and choice of support personnel most needed by principals. Questionnaire B was sent to a random sample similar to that which received Questionnaire A (but not including any respondent to Questionnaire A) following the same procedures developed in Part A.

After Questionnaire B was returned, certain data were gathered, this time with computer assistance. (1) Frequency of response was calculated for the number of returned questionnaires (both A and B) among the seven boards, for the number of each kind of school on both questionnaires, for the number of each size range of school on both questionnaires, for the number of principals in each experience range, for the number of principals in each years of tenure in the present school range, for Likert scale responses to task satisfaction, and for choice of assistant. (2) Chi-squares were calculated to test for significant differences in the above frequencies. (3) Where significant differences were detected by chi-square analysis, t tests were performed to ascertain the sources of significant difference within the variable. (4) Satisfaction means for each of the five functions were calculated. (5) Correlations between each variable were established by Pearson Product Moment.

As was the case in part A, all chi-squares, t tests, and correlations were considered significant at the .05 level, or less.

Conclusion

This chapter has dealt with the conceptual framework for this study, which used the five Ellis-Downey functions in the context of the theoretical models proposed by Getzels et al to explain the major dimensions of social behaviour, and by Getzels and Guba to explain transactional leadership-followership. The framework has lead to research questions and hypotheses concerning time expenditures in principal functions, task importance, task satisfaction, required support personnel, experience, school size, kind of school and vice-principal availability. Also, a two part methodology designed to answer the questions and consider the hypotheses was developed.

The next chapter will present the empirical results of the study. The subsequent chapter will deal with the conclusions and implications of the study.

Chapter Four

Empirical Findings of the Study

Introduction to the Study

Inasmuch as the study was carried out in two parts, the findings have been presented in this chapter in the two-part fashion. In each part, the number of questionnaires returned, the raw data, and the statistical treatments were presented. In addition, the problem was restated below, to aid in focussing attention on the major considerations of the study.

Restatement of the Problem

The purpose of the study was to determine the amount of time spent by principals in the performance of each function, the important component tasks of each function, the amount of satisfaction gained from the performance of important tasks, and the kind of specialized assistance required most by elementary school principals. In addition, selected variables were considered, these are: employing board, school enrollment, kind of school, experience, and the availability of vice-principals.

Part A - The Functions and Tasks of the Principal

The first part of the study dealt with time expenditures in the five Ellis-Downey functions, in relation to board, school size, kind of school, and the availability of vice-principals. It also sought information about component task importance within the five functions.

Response to Questionnaire A: In the seven boards surveyed, there were 533 principals. A sample of 15% was selected at random for the study. To ensure an adequate number of returns, 20% of the principals were actually surveyed. The returns are tabularized in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Summary of Response by Board

Board	No. of Principals	Sample	Number of Questionnaires Returned	% Returned
Peel	132	19	17	89.5
Halton	76	11	13	118.2
Brant	50	8	8	100.0
Wentworth	41	7	4	57.1
Hamilton	85	13	15	115.4
Lincoln	70	11	10	90.9
Niagara South	79	12	8	66.7
Overall	533	81	75	92.6

Section 1: Time Expenditures in Five Principal Functions Among Seven Boards

On each questionnaire, the principal reported time expenditures in each of the Ellis-Downey functions. Time percentages have been presented as overall means with range and standard deviation in Table 4.2. Mean time expenditures by board have been shown graphically in Appendix C. Discrepancies in these and any subsequent tables, with regard to number, are due to missing information on questionnaires.

The mean time expediture for each function was subjected to analysis of variance to determine significant differences among the mean time expenditures for the seven boards. The results are shown in Table 4.3.

As can be seen in Table 4.3, significant differences were found

Table 4.2: Mean Time Expenditure by Function across 7 Boards

Function	Mean (%)	Range (%)	Standard Deviation
Business Administration	19.85	5 - 50	9.59
Personnel Management	34.21	10 - 60	15.52
Educational Programme	23.77	10 - 55	11.73
Change and Innovation	10.23	2 - 40	5.37
School-Community Relations	11.96	2 - 30	11.32

among the seven boards with respect to personnel management and educational programme. For that reason, t-tests were used to determine which boards were significantly different from others (see Tables 4.4 and 4.5).

Table 4.3: Analysis of Variance of Mean Time Expenditures for Seven Boards.

Function	F	df	Significance
Business Administration	.405	$\frac{6}{69}$	ns
Personnel Management	2.329	$\frac{6}{69}$	$p<.05$
Educational Programme	3.238	$\frac{6}{69}$	$p<.05$
Change and Innovation	.418	$\frac{6}{69}$	ns
School-Community Relations	1.313	$\frac{6}{69}$	ns

Peel principals reported spending significantly more time in personnel management than Brant, Lincoln, and Niagara South. Princi-

Table 4.4: Significant t-ratios Comparing Time Expenditures in Personnel Management among the Seven Boards. ($p<.05$)

Board	Niagara South	Lincoln	Hamilton	Wentworth	Brant	Halton
Peel	2.47,df=23	2.65,df=25	-	-	3.31,df=23	-
Halton	-	-	-	-	2.11,df=19	
Brant	-	-	2.26,df=21			
Wentworth	-	-				
Hamilton	-	-				
Lincoln	-					

pals in Brant reported spending significantly less time in this function than Halton and Hamilton, as well as Peel.

Table 4.5: Significant t-ratios Comparing Time Expenditures in Educational Programme among the Seven Boards. ($p<.05$)

Board	Niagara South	Lincoln	Hamilton	Wentworth	Brant	Halton
Peel	3.304,df=23	3.08,df=25	-	-	-	-
Halton	2.827,df=19	2.608,df=21	-	-	-	
Brant	-	-	-	-		
Wentworth	-	-	-			
Hamilton	2.79,df=21	2.7,df=23				
Lincoln	-					

Lincoln principals reported spending significantly more time in educational programme than principals in Peel, Halton, and Hamilton. Niagara South principals also reported more significant time expenditures than principals in Peel, Halton, and Hamilton. No other significant differences were found among the seven boards.

The overall means for each function category were tested for significance by conversion to z-scores (see Table 4.6). It can be seen

Table 4.6: Z-scores Comparing Mean Time Expenditures in Five Functions

Function	School-Community Relations	Change and Innovation	Educational Programme	Personnel Management
Business Administration	4.64	7.70	-2.20	-6.81
Personnel Management	10.02	12.62	4.58	
Educational Programme	6.18	8.91		
Change & Innovation	-1.21			

that mean time expenditures among the five functional categories almost all differed significantly at the .05 level of confidence, since any z-score equal to or greater than 1.96 demands rejection of the null hypothesis (time expenditures do not differ among the five functional categories). The only exception was the difference between time spent in change and innovation and the time spent in school-community relations, where there was no significant difference in time spent.

Time Expenditures in Five Principal Functions as a Function of School Type: The sample was next broken down according to kind or type of school. Generally, there are three kinds of elementary schools. The

junior school usually embodies grade K to six, although many variations actually exist (K-5, K-4, K-3, 1-6, etc.). A composite school almost always has grades K to 8, although a few have grades 1-8. A senior elementary or middle school contains grades 5 to 8, 6 to 8, or 7 to 8. In the following table the overall means for each function were presented for each kind of school. Board means for each kind of school were represented graphically in Appendix C.

Table 4.7: Mean Time Expenditure for Five Functions in Three Kinds of Schools in Seven Boards

Function	Kind of School		
	Junior (N=45)	Composite (N=21)	Senior (N=7)
Business Administration	19.56%	20.90%	18.57%
Personnel Management	33.93%	33.81%	37.14%
Educational Programme	25.33%	20.00%	25.00%
Change & Innovation	9.23%	12.45%	10.00%
School-Community Relations	11.97%	12.83%	9.86%

All mean time expenditures were subjected to analysis of variance, with respect to the three kinds of schools, to see if significant differences existed in these. To be significant at the .05 level of confidence, an F ratio of at least 3.13 is required. In no function did the F ratio approach significance, and therefore, principal time expenditures in the five functions were not found to differ significantly among the three kinds of schools.

At this time it should be noted that the numbers of each kind of school differed widely. The reason for this was that the sample was

Table 4.8: Analysis of Variance of Mean Time Expenditures for Five Functions Among Three Kinds of Schools

Function	df	F ratio	Significance
Business Administration	$\frac{2}{70}$	.177	n.s.
Personnel Management	$\frac{2}{70}$	.115	n.s.
Educational Programme	$\frac{2}{70}$	1.329	n.s.
Change & Innovation	$\frac{2}{70}$	2.177	n.s.
School-Community Relations	$\frac{2}{70}$	.235	n.s.

taken in proportion to the number of each kind of school contained in the total population of schools for a given board. Since there are a great many more junior schools than either composite or senior schools, it is not surprising that the number of returned questionnaires for each kind of school differed so widely. However, since senior school principals (N=7) accounted for less than 10% of the returned questionnaires, one must place some limitations on these findings.

Time Expenditure as a Function of School Enrollment: Differences among schools of varying sizes were examined with respect to principal time expenditures in the five functions. Schools were divided into three groups: enrollments under 300, enrollments of 300 to 499, and enrollments of 500 or more. The findings are presented in Table 4.9. Board means for each size category of school are represented graphically in Appendix C.

The overall mean time expenditures were subjected to analysis of variance, with respect to school size (enrollment). Again, to be sig-

Table 4.9: Mean Time Expenditures for Five Functions by Enrollment, in Seven Boards.

Function	Enrollment 0 - 299 (N=26)	300 - 499 (N=26)	500+ (N=19)
Business Administration	20.08%	19.50%	19.74%
Personnel Management	29.23%	36.62%	37.63%
Educational Programme	28.38%	23.15%	18.16%
Change & Innovation	10.37%	9.62%	10.92%
School-Community Relations	11.94%	11.12%	13.55%

nificant at the .05 level of confidence, the F ratio of at least 3.13 is required. As can be seen in Table 4.10, a significant difference exists between the means for time expenditures in Educational Programme

Table 4.10: Analysis of Variance of Mean Time Expenditures for Five Functions Among Three Enrollment Ranges.

Function	df	F ratio	Significance
Business Administration	$\frac{2}{70}$	.021	n.s.
Personnel Management	$\frac{2}{70}$	1.725	n.s.
Educational Programme	$\frac{2}{70}$	4.587	$p<.05$
Change & Innovation	$\frac{2}{70}$	.399	n.s.
School-Community Relations	$\frac{2}{70}$	.235	n.s.

among the three enrollment ranges. In Table 4.9, it was noted that in small (0-299) schools, principals spent 28.38% of their time in

this function, while in medium sized (300-499) schools and large (500 or more) schools, principals spent 23.15% and 18.16% of their time respectively. By analysis of variance, one can see that principals in smaller schools tended to spend significantly more time in educational programme matters than principals in larger schools.

Since there was a difference in time spent in educational programme among principals of different sized schools, t-tests were carried out to find if the difference was significantly consistent across all school sizes. As can be seen in Table 4.11, the difference between

Table 4.11: T-test Results Comparing Mean Time Expenditure in Educational Programme in Schools of Varying Enrollments

Comparison in School Size	t	df	Significance
Small to Medium	t = 1.50	50	n.s.
Small to Large	t = 2.59	43	p<.05 *
Medium to Large	t = 2.43	43	p<.05 *

* t ratios used to compare means from different size samples

small and medium sized schools, with respect to principal time expenditure in educational programme, was insignificant. However, the difference between small and large schools, and also medium and large schools, with respect to principal time expenditure in educational programme, was significant. One may say, then, that principals of small schools did not spend a significantly different amount of time in this function than principals of medium-sized schools. One may, however, say that principals of small and medium sized schools spent

significantly more time in this function than principals of large schools.

The Effect of Vice-Principals on Principal Time Expenditures: Another factor to be considered, when one is discussing school size, is that larger schools tend to have a vice-principal who, it is presumed, shares the administrative load with the principal. The enrollment at which a vice-principal is appointed seemed to vary from board to board (see Table 4.12). The average enrollment of sampled schools having a vice-principal, however, was 632 (N=24). It may be said that, generally, only the larger schools have vice-principals, although in some boards, medium-sized schools also have vice-principals.

Table 4.12: Lowest Enrollment of a School with a Vice-Principal, in Seven Boards

BOARD						
Peel	Halton	Brant	Wentworth	Hamilton	Lincoln	Niagara South
450	510	391	no data	585	330	362

If it may be assumed that the vice-principal is assigned a portion of the administrative load, it is necessary to see if principals with vice-principals differed in time expenditure in the five functions, from principals who worked on their own. A chi-square analysis was performed to test for differences (see Table 4.13). To be significant at the .05 level of confidence, with two degrees of freedom, a chi-square value of 5.991 is required. Since no such significance was obtained, one may see that principals generally apportioned their time about the same, whether or not a vice-principal was in the school. Similarly, principals did not utilize the vice-principals in such a way

as to free more time for educational leadership functions.

Table 4.13: Chi-square Analysis of Differences in Time Expenditures Between Principals with Vice-Principals and Principals of Schools Without Vice-Principals

Function	X^2	df	Significance
Business Administration	1.808	2	n.s.
Personnel Management	5.162	2	n.s.
Educational Programme	.687	2	n.s.
Change & Innovation	.437	2	n.s.
School-Community Relations	.222	2	n.s.

Predicting Time Expenditures: To find if time expenditures in a particular function have any predictive value with respect to time expenditures in other functions, a correlation matrix, using the Pearson Product Moment, was constructed. As may be seem in Table 4.14, there

Table 4.14: Significant Correlation Coefficients Among Mean Time Expenditures in Five Functions, $p<.05$, df=73 (- indicates no significant correlation)

Function	Business Administration	Personnel Management	Educational Programme	Change & Innovation
School-Community Relations	-	-	-	-
Change & Innovation	-	-.25	-.25	
Educational Programme	-	-.48		
Personnel Management	-.37			

are only four correlations with any significance. Chief among these was a moderate negative correlation (-.48) between personnel administration and educational programme. Principals who spent more time in personnel administration tended to spend somewhat less time in educational programme (and vice versa). Next was a moderately weak negative correlation (-.37) between business administration and personnel management which indicated that there was some interference in time expenditure in the one function with time spent in the other. Finally, there were two fairly weak negative correlations (-.25) between the function of change and innovation on one hand, and the functions of personnel management and educational programme on the other. This indicated, although not convincingly, that performance of the personnel management and educational programme functions mitigated against the performance of the change and innovation function, and vice versa, although the means indicated that the former was more likely.

Summary of Time Expenditures in Five Principal Functions: The results of the study have shown that personnel management consumed significantly more time than other functions, which, ranked in order of time expenditure, were educational programme, business administration, school-community relations, and change and innovation. Analysis of variance showed that principals of different boards did not all spend the same amount of time in personnel management and educational programme. Analysis of variance also showed that principal time expenditures did not vary among the three kinds of school, but that time spent in educational programme varied significantly among principals of small and medium-sized schools as opposed to principals of large schools who

spent less time in this function. Chi-square analysis of time expenditures for principals with or without the assistance of vice-principals showed that there were no significant differences in time expenditures in any function. The few existing correlations, all negative, showed that some functions interfered with other functions with respect to time expenditure.

Important Component Tasks in the Five Functions: In the second part of Questionnaire A, principals were asked to check off the fifteen tasks they considered most important to the role of the principal. The summary of response for this part of the questionnaire can be seen in Table 4.15. One can only speculate as to why 27 principals did not complete part two of the questionnaire, but perhaps the omission was simply an oversight. Table 4.16 presents, in part, the findings of part 2. Other tasks, checked as important to the role of the principal on less than 40% of the questionnaires, are listed in Appendix C.

Table 4.15: Summary of Response, Part 2, Questionnaire A.

Board	N	Percent of Questionnaires Returned	Percent of 15% Sample
Peel	11	64.7	57.9%
Halton	7	53.8	63.6%
Brant	5	62.5	62.5%
Wentworth	3	75.0	42.9%
Hamilton	11	73.3	84.6%
Lincoln	6	60.0	54.5%
Niagara South	5	62.5	41.7%
Total	48	64.0	59.3%

Table 4.16: Frequency of Task Response, by Board. (BA=Business Administration, PM=Personnel Management, EP=Educational Programme, C & I=Change & Innovation, SCR=School-Community Relations)

Task	Function	Peel N=11	Halton N=7	Brant N=5	Wentworth N=3	Hamilton N=11	Lincoln N=6	Niag.S. N=5	Total N=48	%
1. Improving teacher proficiency	PM	10	7	5	3	7	6	4	42	87.5
2. Counselling students (non-discipline)	PM	8	7	2	3	10	4	5	39	81.3
3. Meeting with parents	SCR	6	7	4	2	8	4	6	37	77.1
4. Communicating with the community	SCR	9	7	5	2	4	4	4	35	72.9
5. Developing public relations	SCR	10	6	3	2	5	4	4	34	70.8
6. Supervising teachers	PM	9	6	2	2	6	4	4	33	68.8
7. Implementing curriculum	EP	9	5	4	2	7	5	2	34	70.8
8. Evaluating curriculum	EP	8	5	4	2	5	5	3	32	66.7
9. Serving as a resource person	EP	6	6	2	2	7	5	4	32	66.7
10. Dealing with student discipline problems	PM	7	4	2	1	8	3	5	30	62.5
11. Studying innovative practices, methods, and techniques	C&I	5	3	4	1	6	4	4	27	56.3
12. Scheduling	PM	5	1	2	2	7	5	3	25	52.1
13. Planning curriculum	EP	6	1	3	0	8	3	5	26	54.2
14. Delegating authority to teacher committees	PM	5	4	2	0	6	1	4	22	45.8
15. Budgeting	BA	5	3	3	3	1	4	3	22	45.8
16. Providing in-service training	PM	1	3	4	1	6	3	2	20	41.7
17. Teaching	EP	1	1	2	2	6	4	4	20	41.7

The primary purpose of Part Two was to find the tasks deemed most important to the role of the principal, so that these could be used to construct Questionnaire B (see Appendix B). However, a Pearson Product Moment was calculated between the relative importance of the tasks contained in each of the five functions and the amount of time spent in each function among the seven boards, to see what relationship existed (see Table 4.17). To be significant at the .05 level of confidence, a correlation coefficient of .75 is required. Therefore, it must be assumed that any of the correlations were due to chance only, and that there were in fact no correlations of significant worth.

Table 4.17: Correlation Between Task Importance and Time Expenditure in Five Functions (N=7, df=5)

Function	r	Significance
Business Administration	-.36	n.s.
Personnel Management	.55	n.s.
Educational Programme	.37	n.s.
Change and Innovation	.35	n.s.
School-Community Relations	.05	n.s.

It should be noted that, of the 17 tasks chosen as important by more than 40% of the responding principals, seven were personnel management tasks, and five were educational programme activities which is consistent with the time expenditures noted in Table 4.2. However, three school-community relations tasks were chosen, along with one business administration task, and one change and innovation activity,

whereas business administration ranked significantly higher in time expenditure than either school-community relations or change and innovation.

Conclusion: The descriptive data and statistical treatments from Questionnaire A which have been presented herein will be discussed in detail in the next chapter. In Part B, the 17 most important component tasks of the five principal functions, herein identified, will be examined by means of a second questionnaire.

Part B - Analysis of the Tasks of the Principal

The second part of the study dealt with principal satisfaction with respect to the performance of the 17 important component tasks. In addition, the effects of experience, years of tenure in one school, school size, and kind of school on the amount of satisfaction were examined. The study also dealt with the principals' choice of assistant.

Response to Questionnaire B: The principals in the seven boards were again surveyed by random sample, in similar manner to that used in Part A. However, it should be noted that a new sample was used, so that no principal who responded to Questionnaire A responded to Questionnaire B. The returns are tabularized in Table 4.18.

The number of responses to Questionnaires A and B among the seven boards was subjected to chi-square analysis. No significant difference in the number of returned questionnaires was found.

Demographic Information

Each principal was asked to indicate the number of years' experience he had as a principal, and also as principal of his present

Table 4.18: Summary of Responses, by Board

Board	No. of Principals	Sample	No. of Questionnaires Returned	% Returned
Peel	132	19	22	115.8
Halton	76	11	14	127.3
Brant	50	8	9	112.5
Wentworth	41	7	6	85.7
Hamilton	85	13	14	107.7
Lincoln	70	11	12	109.1
Niagara South	79	12	9	75.0
Overall	533	81	86	106.2

school. These responses were grouped in five categories: (1) one year; (2) two years; (3) three to five years; (4) six to ten years; and (5) 11 or more years. The results are given in Tables 4.19 and

Table 4.19: Overall Number of Years' Experience as a Principal (N=84)

Experience in Years	Frequency	Percentage
1	4	4.8%
2	4	4.8%
3 - 5	16	19.0%
6 - 10	23	27.4%
11 or more	37	44.0%

4.20. As can be seen, the principals in the seven boards tended to be highly experienced, since over 70% had been principals for more than five years. The boards tended to move their principals around, since nearly 75% of the principals had been in their present schools between one and five years. Breakdowns of both variables by board were represented graphically in Appendix C. Both variables were tested for significant differences among the seven boards, by chi-square analysis, but none were found.

Table 4.20: Overall Number of Years' Tenure as Principal in Present School (N=83)

Experience in Years	Frequency	Percentages
1	13	15.7%
2	9	10.8%
3 - 5	39	47.0%
6 - 10	18	21.7%
11 or more	4	4.8%

Again, as noted in the results of Questionnaire A, the choosing of a random sample in proportion to the kinds of school was reflected in the findings of this questionnaire. Table 4.21 show that Junior schools comprised a large part of the sample, followed by Composite and Senior schools. The frequencies for each kind of school on Questionnaires A and B were subjected to chi-square analysis, and no significant difference in the responses on the two questionnaires was found. A breakdown of school types by board is represented graphi-

Table 4.21: Overall Responses by Kinds of Schools (N=83)

Kind of School	Frequency	Percentage
Junior	49	59.0%
Composite	24	28.9%
Senior	10	12.0%

cally in Appendix C.

Schools varied greatly in size in the seven areas surveyed. The results of this information are shown in Table 4.22. The frequencies for each size category on Questionnaires A and B were subjected to chi-square analysis, and no significant difference in the responses on the two questionnaires was found. A breakdown of schools in each size category is shown graphically in Appendix C.

Table 4.22: Overall Response, by School Size (Enrollment) (N=85)

Size of School	Frequency	Percentage
0 - 299	29	34.1%
300 - 499	37	43.5%
500+	19	22.4%

In the demographic information, it has been shown that the responding principals were highly experienced, but that the majority of principals had been in their present schools less than six years. The kinds and enrolments of schools were described, and compared by chi-square analysis to the kinds and enrolments of schools reported

in Questionnaire A. Since no significant differences were found, comparisons between Questionnaires A and B may be considered valid. Also worthy of note was the fact that principals from the seven boards did not differ significantly with respect to years of experience or years of tenure in their present schools.

Satisfaction Ratings of the Important Component Tasks: In this part of the questionnaire, principals were asked to rate 17 tasks chosen as important by respondents to Questionnaire A (see Table 4.16) according to how much satisfaction they gained from the performance of them. A six-point Likert Scale was used, ranging from one (which meant no satisfaction) to six (which meant a very high degree of satisfaction). The task, number of responses, mean score, and standard deviation are shown in Table 4.23. Each task was then grouped according to function, and a group mean was established (see Table 4.24). From this it can be seen that the five functions, ranked in order of satisfaction, were

Table 4.24: Satisfaction Means for Five Functions

Function	Task Items (see Table 4.48)	Mean Satisfaction Score
Business Administration	15	3.129
Personnel Management	1, 2, 6, 10, 12, 14, 16	4.224
Educational Programme	7, 8, 9, 13, 17	4.414
Change & Innovation	11	4.429
School-Community Relations	3, 4, 5	4.693

Table 4.23: Satisfaction Scores for the Performance of Seventeen Principal Tasks: 1 means no satisfaction, while 6 means very highly satisfied. PM=Personnel Management, SCR=Scool-Community Relations, EP=Educational Programme, C&I=Change and Innovation, BA=Business Administration.

Task	Function	N	Mean	s.d.
1. Improving teacher proficiency	PM	85	5.224	.931
2. Counselling students (non-discipline)	PM	85	5.071	1.044
3. Meeting with parents	SCR	84	4.726	.961
4. Communicating with the community	SCR	85	4.635	1.045
5. Developing public relations	SCR	85	4.718	1.140
6. Supervising teachers	PM	85	4.071	1.232
7. Implementing curriculum	EP	85	4.318	1.126
8. Evaluating curriculum	EP	84	4.167	1.096
9. Serving as a resource person	EP	84	4.582	.996
10. Dealing with student discipline problems	PM	85	3.271	1.392
11. Studying innovative practices, methods & techniques	C&I	84	4.429	1.175
12. Scheduling	PM	84	3.238	1.376
13. Planning curriculum	EP	85	4.294	1.056
14. Delegating authority to teacher committees	PM	85	4.329	1.084
15. Budgeting	BA	85	3.129	1.223
16. Providing in-service training	PM	85	4.365	1.045
17. Teaching	EP	82	4.707	1.365

school-community relations, change and innovation, educational programme, personnel management, and business administration. The five functions, ranked in order of time expenditure, however were personnel management, educational programme, business administration, school community relations, and change and innovation.

It should be noted that satisfaction scores in personnel management tasks varied widely (from 5.224 to 3.271). Personnel management, as described, was not as cohesive a unit as educational programme, with scores which varied from 4.707 to 4.167, or school-community relations, with scores which varied only from 4.726 to 4.635. The chief causes of the wide disparity in satisfaction were the tasks of scheduling, which might have been considered more administrative than educative in nature, and dealing with student discipline problems, which, while necessary, no one in education really enjoys. It should also be noted that some limitations have to be placed on the satisfaction means for business administration and change and innovation because of the lack of weight generated by the paucity of tasks (only one each) in each function.

Choice of Assistant for the Principal: In this part of the questionnaire, principals were asked which of five trained persons they would choose to assist them in the management of the school, namely (a) a Business Assistant, (b) a Clerk, (c) a Curriculum Association, (d) a Personnel Administrator, or (e) a Research Assistant. The results, as seen in Table 4.25, clearly showed that principals most desire a Curriculum Associate. A breakdown of the response to choice of assistant, by board, is shown graphically in Appendix C. The frequency of response for each type of assistant was subjected to chi-square analysis, but no significant difference among the seven boards was found.

Table 4.25: Frequency of Response to Choice of Assistant (N=81)

Choice	Frequency	Percentage
Business Assistant	8	9.9%
Clerk	3	3.7%
Curriculum Associate	63	77.8%
Personnel Administrator	3	3.7%
Research Assistant	4	4.9%

Tests for Significant Differences in Satisfaction: All of the satisfaction variables were subjected to chi-square analysis to see if any significant differences existed among boards of education, the principals' experience, the number of years a principal had been in his present school, the various sizes of schools, and the various kinds of schools. This was done to determine the effects of these demographic variables on principal satisfaction. Where significant chi-squares were calculated, t-tests were used to determine the direction and sources of difference.

Among the seven boards, significant differences were found in the satisfaction responses to five principal tasks. These are shown in Table 4.26. There were no other significant differences among the seven boards in principal satisfaction responses.

To ascertain where the differences lay, t-tests were calculated for each variable. T-test tables may be seen in Appendix C. According to the t-tests, principals in Peel, Halton, Brant, Hamilton and Niagara South derived more satisfaction from counselling students than did their counterparts in Wentworth. Peel principals were also more satisfied than Lincoln

Table 4.26: Chi-square Analysis of the Differences Between Satisfaction and Boards of Education

Task	Function	X^2	df	Significance
2. Counselling students	PM	56.525	30	$p<.05$
3. Meeting with parents	SCR	44.111	24	$p<.05$
4. Communicating with the community	SCR	61.190	24	$p<.05$
5. Developing public relations	SCR	52.016	30	$p<.05$
13. Planning curriculum	EP	37.767	24	$p<.05$

principals in this task. However, no other significant differences were found among the remaining fifteen possible combinations. Principals in Peel, Halton, Brant, Hamilton and Niagara South obtained more satisfaction with meeting parents than principals in Wentworth. Also, Hamilton principals were more satisfied performing this task than principals in Lincoln and Niagara South. No significant differences among the remaining fourteen possible combinations were found. Principals in all boards, other than Wentworth, derived significantly more satisfaction from communicating with the community than did principals in Wentworth. No significant differences were found among the remaining fifteen possible combinations. Principals in Halton and Brant were more satisfied with performing the task of developing public relations than principals in Wentworth, while principals in Peel were more satisfied in this task than principals in Wentworth, Lincoln and Niagara South. Among the remaining sixteen possible combinations, no other significant differences were found. In the task of planning curriculum, although a significant

chi-square was found (see Table 4.52), no significant t-ratios were calculated in any of the 21 possible combinations of comparisons among the seven boards.

At this point, it is prudent to comment on the lack of significant t-ratios among the seven boards in the task of planning curriculum. Failure to find significance in the t-tests after having found significant chi-squares is attributed to a number of empty cells in the chi-square problems and to a few instances of very small numbers of responses. It must be presumed that these led to making an alpha error in the rejection of the null hypothesis that there is no difference in satisfaction in planning curriculum among principals in the seven boards. These errors can be corrected by accepting the null hypotheses on the basis of no significance in t-test comparisons.

A significant chi-square was obtained in comparing years' experience with studying innovative practices, methods and techniques (see Table 4.27). T-test results (see Appendix C) showed that principals with three to five years' experience derived more satisfaction from the performance of this task than their counterparts with six to ten years' experience or with eleven or more years' experience. No other significant differences were found in any of the remaining eight possible combinations of experience categories.

Principals in each of the five years of tenure categories were compared with respect to satisfaction scores. No significant differences were detected by chi-square analysis.

Principals of small, medium, and large schools were compared with respect to satisfaction scores. No significant differences were detected by chi-square analysis.

Significant chi-squares were obtained in comparing the kind of school in which a principal was working, and satisfaction in tasks of implementing curriculum and scheduling (see Table 4.28). However, no significant t-ratios were calculated in any of the six possible comparisons. Again, this is attributed to empty cells in the chi-square problem, and instances of very small numbers of responses.

Table 4.28: Chi-square Analysis of Differences in Satisfaction and Kinds of Schools

Task	Function	X^2	df	Significance
7. Implementing curriculum	EP	20.689	8	$p<.05$
12. Scheduling	PM	21.929	10	$p<.05$

In most cases, there were no significant differences among principal satisfaction scores and the demographic variables. Principals of difference boards accounted for five differences in satisfaction, while principal experience accounted for only one difference in satisfaction.

Predicting Satisfaction: Pearson Product Moment correlations were calculated between all of the responses in the demographic information and the satisfaction scores for the 17 important component tasks to see if these responses were predictive of satisfaction responses. Correlations were also calculated between each satisfaction score, to determine the predictability of satisfaction responses in relation to each other.

Table 4.29 shows significant correlations among two satisfaction scores and years' experience. As principals gain more experience, they are less likely to gain satisfaction from improving teacher proficiency

Table 4.29: Correlations Between Years' Experience and Two Satisfaction Scores

Variable	N	r	Significance
Improving Teacher Proficiency	84	-.24	p<.05
Developing Public Relations	84	-.22	p<.05

and developing public relations, although the correlations are fairly weak.

Table 4.30 shows significant correlations between the number of years a principal has been in a school, and two satisfaction scores.

Table 4.30: Correlations Between Years' in a School and Two Satisfaction Scores

Variable	N	r	Significance
Dealing with Student Discipline	83	-.28	p<.05
Planning Curriculum	83	.21	p<.05

The longer a principal spends in a school, the less satisfaction is derived from dealing with student discipline problems, and the more is derived from planning curriculum, although these correlations are moderately weak.

Table 4.31 shows a significant correlation between enrollment and satisfaction in supervising teachers. This moderately weak correlation shows that in larger schools, principals tended to be more satisfied with supervising teachers.

Table 4.31: Correlations Between Enrollment and Supervising Teachers

Variable	N	r	Significance
Supervising Teachers	84	.23	$p<.05$

In Senior and Composite schools, principals tended to be less satisfied with serving as a resource person, since, a fairly weak negative correlation (-.19, N=81, $p<.05$) was calculated. Conversely, Junior school principals tended to get more satisfaction from the performance of this task.

Table 4.32 shows the numerous significant correlations that exist among the satisfaction scores. Notable among these are four moderately strong positive correlations which show that principals tended to be similarly satisfied in (a) communicating with the community and developing public relations (r=.74), (b) meeting with parents and communicating with the community (r=.67), (c) meeting with parents and developing public relations (r=.65), and (d) implementing curriculum and evaluating curriculum (r=.63). Also worthy of note are two positive moderate correlations which show that principals tended to be similarly satisfied with (a) implementing and planning curriculum (r=.59) and (b) counselling students and meeting with parents (r=.52). There are also seven positive correlations which are slightly less than moderate in strength. These are: evaluating and planning curriculum (r=.47), planning curriculum and delegating authority (r=.44), counselling students and developing public relations (r=.44), supervising teachers and implementing curriculum (r=.43), counselling students and communicating with the community (r=.42), studying innovations and planning curriculum (r=.41), and studying innovations and delegating

Table 4.32: Correlations Among Satisfaction Scores for Principal Tasks. (- indicates no significant correlation). (Numbers across the top of the matrix correspond to the numbers of the tasks on the left).

Task	17	16	15	14	13	12	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2
1. Improving teacher proficiency	.28	-	-	.23	.28	-	.38	-.19	.29	.22	.30	.21	.19	.28	.20	.27
2. Counselling students	.35	-	-	.36	-	-	.30	-	-	-	-	-	.44	.42	.52	
3. Meeting with parents	.21	-	-	.27	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	.65	.67		
4. Communicating with the community	.24	.24	.21	.35	.25	-	-	-.23	-	-	.19	-	.74			
5. Developing public relations	-	-	-	.25	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-				
6. Supervising teachers	-	-	-	-	.25	.24	-	.19	.24	.37	.43					
7. Implementing curriculum	-	.36	-	.32	.59	-	.27	-	.31	.63						
8. Evaluating curriculum	-	.36	-	.22	.47	-	-	-	.31							
9. Serving as a resource person	.36	.23	-	.20	-	-	.25	-								
10. Dealing with student discipline	-	-	-	-	-	.35	-									
11. Studying innovations	-	.23	-	.40	.41	-										
12. Scheduling	-	-	.35	-	-											
13. Planning curriculum	-	.34	.23	.44												
14. Delegating authority to teachers	-	.26	-													
15. Budgeting	-	-														
16. Providing in-service training	.26															
17. Teaching																

authority (r=.40). There are 49 other correlations of lesser strength.

Time expenditures in each function were correlated with satisfaction means for the tasks grouped in each function. However, no significant correlation was found. Therefore satisfaction with the performance of tasks may not necessarily be a determinant of the time spent in any one function.

In conclusion, there were few correlations between the demographic variables and the satisfaction scores, and these were fairly weak. There were, however, a number of reasonably strong correlations among the satisfaction scores. The three school-community relations tasks all correlated quite strongly. The curriculum tasks in the educational programme function also correlated fairly well. Counselling students correlated well with the school-community relations tasks, which is not surprising since these are all people related tasks. The curriculum tasks also seemed to correlate well with other educational leadership tasks, such as teacher supervision, delegating authority, and studying innovations.

Conclusion: The descriptive data and statistical treatments from Questionnaire B have been presented here. Satisfaction with principal tasks, the effects of other variables on satisfaction, and choice of assistant for the principal were investigated. The findings will be discussed in detail in the next chapter.

Conclusion of the Study

During the study, questions regarding principal time expenditure in the five Ellis-Downey functions were investigated with respect to selected organizational factors - school size, school type, and the availability of vice-principals, and certain personal factors - years of experience, and years of tenure in the current school. Germane to the study were measures

of satisfaction with identified important component tasks in each Ellis-Downey function, since satisfaction determines the effectiveness and efficiency of the choosing of the amount of time to spend in each function. Also considered were the choices principals made of assistants. Theoretically at least, principals were expected to choose assistants to perform functions they disliked, or functions that did not require a principal's expertise. The data resulting from these investigations will be discussed in the next chapter, as research questions are answered and hypotheses accepted or rejected. The conclusions and the implications drawn from the results of the study will also be presented.

Chapter Five

Conclusions and Implications

Introduction

In this chapter, the findings of the two studies, presented in the previous chapter, will be discussed in the light of the research questions and hypotheses resulting from the conceptual framework. Conclusions will be drawn from the findings of the studies. Finally, the studies' implications will be stated, and further questions will be posed.

Research Questions and Hypotheses - Part A

In this part of the study, time expenditures in the five principal functions were examined. Task importance from the point of view of the principal was also investigated.

QUESTION ONE: How much time is spent by responding principals in each of the Ellis-Downey functions?

Of the five functions, personnel management was found to consume over one-third of the available time (34.21%, s.d. = 15.52). The other two major time consumers were educational programme (23.77%, s.d. = 11.73) and business administration (19.85%, s.d. = 9.59). The remainder of the time was spent in school-community relations (11.96%, s.d. = 11.32) and speculative-creative activities (10.23%, s.d. = 5.37).

QUESTION TWO: What effect does school size, or type of school, have on principal time expenditures in the Ellis-Downey functions?

Although the descriptive data regarding school size (enrollment) indicates some variance with the overall mean time expenditures, analysis of variance indicates significant differences among the three enrollment

ranges in only one function--educational programme. In this function, principals of smaller schools spent more time than principals of larger schools. T-tests indicated that principals in small (0-299) schools, and medium-sized schools (300-499) each spend significantly more time in educational programme than principals of large (500 or more) schools, but that there is no significant difference in time expenditure among principals of small and medium-sized schools. Generally, the smaller the school, the more time is spent in educational programme by principals.

The descriptive data regarding the three kinds of schools - junior, composite, and senior, indicates some variance with the overall mean time expenditures. Analysis of variance showed that no significant differences existed among principals of each kind of school with respect to time expenditures in any of the five functions. Apparent differences were the result of sampling error. Generally, it may be stated that kind of school has no effect on principal time expenditures in any of the five Ellis-Downey functions.

QUESTION THREE: How does the presence of a vice-principal in a school affect principal time expenditures in the five functions?

Some differences between responses from principals assisted by vice-principals and those from unassisted principals were noted. However, chi-square analysis failed to indicate that the differences were significant. Therefore, principals assisted by vice-principals apportion their time about the same as unassisted principals, and differences appear to be the result of sampling error.

QUESTION FOUR: What tasks in the five functions are seen as important by principals?

Table 4.16 summarizes the findings of this part of the study. The

data will not be repeated here. Instead, certain highlights will be noted. The first six important tasks are all people-oriented--that is, tasks dealing with teachers and clients (students and parents). The next three tasks are all educational programme tasks. Speculative-creative activities rank well down the list, in eleventh position. The management, or "good-order" tasks rank in the lower half of the list, from tenth to fifteenth. The task of planning curriculum is seen as much less important than either implementing or evaluating curriculum. Budgeting was the only one of eight business administration tasks to be chosen by more than 40% of responding principals. It is apparent that, in importance, school-community relations ranks first, followed by personnel management and educational programme, in that order. Of lesser importance are speculative-creative activities and business administration.

HYPOTHESIS ONE: Principals do not spend significantly more time in business administration than in any other function.

This hypothesis is accepted, since z-scores (Table 4.6) indicate that principals spend significantly less time in business administration than in personnel management and educational programme. Principals spend significantly more time in business administration, only with respect to school-community relations and speculative-creative activities. These results are borne out in the descriptive data.

HYPOTHESIS TWO: Principals do not spend significantly less time in educational programme than in either business administration or personnel management.

This hypothesis is accepted, since principals spend more time in educational programme than in business administration, although they do spend less time in this function than in personnel management. Both

differences were found to be significant.

HYPOTHESIS THREE: Principals do not spend significantly less time in speculative-creative activities than in any other function.

This hypothesis is accepted, since principals do not spend a significantly different amount of time in speculative-creative activities than in school-community relations. However, the descriptive data shows that less time is spent in this function, and the z-scores indicate that the difference is significant for all functions except school-community relations.

HYPOTHESIS FOUR: Principals in the seven boards do not spend significantly different amounts of time in any of the five functions.

This hypothesis is rejected, since analysis of variance revealed significant differences in time spent in personnel management and educational programme among the seven boards. T-ratios indicated that principals in Peel spent significantly more time in personnel management than principals in Niagara South, Lincoln, and Brant, while principals in Brant spent significantly less time performing this function than principals in Halton and Hamilton. T-ratios also indicated that Lincoln and Niagara South principals spent significantly more time in educational programme than principals in Peel, Halton, and Hamilton.

HYPOTHESIS FIVE: Principals in junior schools do not spend significantly less time in business administration than principals in composite or senior schools.

This hypothesis is accepted, since analysis of variance revealed no significant difference in mean time expenditures among principals of the three kinds of schools.

HYPOTHESIS SIX: Principals in junior schools do not spend more time in educational programme than principals in composite and senior schools.

This hypothesis is accepted since analysis of variance revealed no significant difference in mean time expenditures among principals of the three kinds of schools.

HYPOTHESIS SEVEN: Principals of small schools do not spend significantly less time in business administration than principals of medium or large schools.

This hypothesis is accepted, since analysis of variance revealed no significant difference in mean time expenditures in business administration among principals of small, medium or large schools.

HYPOTHESIS EIGHT: Principals of small schools do not spend significantly more time in educational programme than principals of medium or large schools.

A significant difference in time expenditure in educational programme among principals of small, medium, and large schools was detected by analysis of variance. However, subsequent t-tests indicated that mean time expenditures in this function do not vary significantly among principals of small and medium schools, although significant differences among principals of small and large schools, and medium and large schools were found. Therefore, the hypothesis is accepted.

HYPOTHESIS NINE: Principals assisted by vice-principals do not spend less time in business administration and personnel administration, and more time in educational programme than principals who work alone.

This hypothesis is accepted, since chi-square analysis shows no significant difference in these three functions between principals assisted by vice-principals and unassisted principals.

Conclusions Drawn from the Data from Part A

The primary purpose of Part A of the study was to investigate time expenditures in the functions of the principal. Numerous studies, most

emanating from the United States, dealt with time expenditures in principal functions. These were cited in Chapter Two. Therefore, the study investigated time expenditures in the functions of the principal in Canada, or more specifically, in Southern Ontario.

Project R.O.M.E. (1974) had reported 1% of principal time being spent in curriculum and instruction, and over 52% being spent in support management and miscellaneous activities. Melton (1971) had reported principals spending twice the ideal amount of time in administration, and from 9% to 14% less than the ideal amount of time in instructional leadership. Rock and Hemphill (1966) had reported time expenditures of 26% in administration and 10% in curriculum and instruction. Paus (1970) had reported time expenditures of 25% in educational programme, 8% in school management, and 45% in student personnel services.

In the seven boards studied in Southern Ontario, principals did not report similar time expenditures. Business administration consumed less than 20% of the time, while educational programme received just under 25% of the principals' time. Personnel management time expenditures of just less than 35% are reasonably consistent with Paus' findings. The conclusion drawn is that Southern Ontario principals spend more time in educational programme and less time in business administration than their American counterparts. For this reason, one may conclude that Southern Ontario principals spend more time in educational leadership functions.

Swift (1974) had stated, in part, that the principal can only function as an educator in small schools where other pressures are minimal. This was borne out to some extent among Souther Ontario principals. It was found that principals of smaller schools spent more time in educational programme than principals of larger schools. Since no significant differ-

ences were detected in other functions, one cannot be certain about which functions receive the time larger school principals are not spending in educational programme. One can only assume that the extra time is being spent in a variety of activities, such as administrative or personnel duties.

Paus (1970) and Snyder (1976) had stated that administrative responsibilities ought to be delegated to the vice-principal. In Southern Ontario, however, principals do not delegate a disproportionate amount of such responsibilities to vice-principals, in order to be free to exercise leadership responsibilities. One must assume, then, that vice-principals share equally in all principal functions--administrative as well as leadership. Since vice-principalships have long been considered training grounds for future principals, perhaps it is not so surprising that principals share all their duties. Otherwise, vice-principals would not receive the necessary experience needed to be a principal.

In short, the only institutional variable on the normative dimension of the conceptual model that had any effect at all on the social behaviour of Southern Ontario principals, with respect to time expenditure selection, was school size. If educational leadership is the most desirable function of elementary principals, smaller school units (less than 500 pupils) should be considered by boards of education.

Mintzberg (1973) noted that managers spend 78% of their time, and perform 67% of their activities, in verbal interaction. It is interesting that responding principals more often chose tasks dealing with teachers, students and parents, where verbal interaction is a necessity, as important. Wiggins (1970), Goldsborough et al (1971), Becker et al (1971), Houts (1975), McNally (1975), and Higby (1974) had all agreed that educational leadership was the true role of the principal. In the study, the nine most

important tasks chosen by responding principals were all educational leadership tasks. Mintzberg (1973) had also stated that the pressures of the managerial environment do not encourage reflective planners in managerial roles. In the study, only one speculative-creative activity was chosen as important by more than 40% of the responding principals, and that ranked well down the list. Planning curriculum, similarly, ranked well down in importance, compared to other leadership activities. Yet, Higley (1974), Project R.O.M.E., (1974) and Swick and Driggers (1975), among others, considered planning and change to be integral parts of the leadership function. Therefore, as long as there are administrative responsibilities attached to the role of the principal, principals will not have time for the innovation function, nor will they feel it is important.

It should be noted that the importance of the given tasks was rated in terms of the principals' own perceptions, and as such, the ratings form part of the personal dimension of the conceptual model. Principals spent more time in personnel management than other functions, and rated some of the component tasks as very important. The second highest time consumer was educational programme, and again, some of the component tasks were rated as very important. However, school-community relations consumed relatively little time, and yet the component tasks were rated as very important. This may be because (a) community dealings are less immediate on a day-to-day basis than personnel management and educational programme, and (b) such duties really do not require much time. Change and innovation received the least time, and was also rated as less important. Business administration required the third highest time expenditure, and yet the component tasks were rated largely unimportant. As Mintzberg stated,

principals have to accept a certain number of "housekeeping duties" as part of the job. In terms of the conceptual model, if such duties are an institutional expectation, the tasks must be performed, whether principals think they are important or not. Otherwise, principals would not be considered effective. To avoid the potentially frustrating situation in which principals must perform unimportant tasks to be effective, boards might consider business assistants, trained to relieve the principal of these duties. Goldsborough et al, Goldstein, and others had all recommended this alternative. According to the data in this study, principals would have 20% more time to spend in other leadership functions. This point will be discussed further in relation to task satisfaction and choice of assistant.

An important institutional variable in the conceptual framework was employing board. Since the duties of boards and principals are, in part, mandated by law in Ontario and monitored by the Ministry of Education, it was felt that principals in the seven boards would spend similar amounts of time in each function. Analysis of variance and subsequent t-tests disproved this hypothesis, insofar as personnel management and educational programme time expenditures were concerned. No data is available to explain this phenomenon. It is apparent that some boards have placed different priorities on these two functions, and that the difference in thrust is reflected in the differing time expenditures.

Research Questions and Hypotheses - Part B

In this part of the study, satisfaction with component tasks was investigated. Choice of assistant from the point of view of the principal was also examined.

QUESTION ONE: What functions give responding principals the most satisfaction?

If satisfaction scores for tasks in each function are averaged, school-community relations yields the highest satisfaction (4.693), followed by speculative-creative activities (4.429), educational programme (4.414), and personnel management (4.224). It should be noted, however, that of the personnel management tasks, improving teacher proficiency and counselling students in non-discipline matters yielded the highest satisfaction scores among responding principals (5.224 and 5.071 respectively).

QUESTION TWO: What function gives responding principals the least satisfaction?

Business administration yielded the lowest satisfaction score (3.129). This function, however, was represented by only one task--budgeting.

QUESTION THREE: How does experience in the role of the principal affect the amount of satisfaction gained from the component tasks?

Chi-square analysis yielded a significant difference in satisfaction gained in studying innovative practices, methods, and techniques among principals in the five years of experience categories. T-tests revealed that principals with three to five years experience gained more satisfaction from this task than principals with either six to ten years experience, or eleven or more years experience. Other than these, principals were similarly satisfied with all the other tasks, no matter how much experience they had.

QUESTION FOUR: What support personnel are most desired by principals?

Principals most desire a curriculum associate, since 77.8% of responding principals made this choice. No other choice of assistant gained even 10% of the responses, as can be seen in Table 4.25.

QUESTION FIVE: What significant correlations exist among (1) demographic and satisfaction variables, and (2) satisfaction variables?

1) As years of experience increase, negative correlations show that principals tend to be less satisfied with improving teacher proficiency and developing public relations. As years in one school increase, principals become less satisfied with dealing with student discipline problems, as shown by a negative correlation. At the same time, principals become more satisfied with planning curriculum, as shown by a positive correlation. As school size (enrollment) increases, principals tend to be more satisfied supervising teachers. In senior and composite schools, principals tend to be less satisfied with serving as a resource person.

2) Among the satisfaction variables, there were 60 positive correlations, and two negative correlations. It is best to consult Table 4.32, for these. In lieu of an overall summary, correlations among satisfaction scores for tasks belonging to the five functions will be noted. (a) Among the three school-community relations tasks, there are three moderately strong correlations, ranging from .74 to .65. (b) Among the five educational programme tasks, six of the ten correlations were significant, ranging from .31 to .63. The most notable correlations were found among the three tasks dealing with curriculum. (c) Among the seven personnel management tasks, only 9 of the 21 correlations were significant, and even these were fairly weak, ranging from .19 to .36. This indicates that, in this function, the tasks are of sufficient variety as to diffuse the function. Indeed, some personnel management tasks are leadership-oriented (e.g. improving teacher proficiency, and delegating authority to teachers), while others are management (maintenance) oriented (e.g. dealing with student discipline problems, and scheduling). (d) The one business

administration task correlates somewhat with maintenance-oriented tasks (e.g. scheduling). The one speculative-creative task correlates with leadership-oriented tasks (e.g. delegating authority, and planning curriculum).

QUESTION SIX: What significant correlations are there between satisfaction means and time expenditures for the five functions?

No significant correlations were calculated among the ten possible correlations.

HYPOTHESIS ONE: Principals do not derive significantly more satisfaction from educational programme and speculative-creative activities than any others.

This hypothesis is accepted, since principals derived greater satisfaction from school-community relations than from either educational programme or speculative-creative activities.

HYPOTHESIS TWO: Principals do not derive the least satisfaction from business administration.

This hypothesis is rejected, since the lowest of the satisfaction scores was for budgeting (3.129).

HYPOTHESIS THREE: As time in the school, and years of experience increase, principals are not more satisfied with management activities, and less satisfied with educational leadership activities.

This hypothesis is accepted, since there is no indication that satisfaction decreases or increases as time goes by, except in the task of studying innovations (a leadership task). In this task, t-tests, following chi-square analysis, indicated that principals who had been in the role for three to five years were significantly more satisfied with this task than principals who had more experience. There is absolutely

no indication that years in a school bring about an increase or decrease in satisfaction with any task.

HYPOTHESIS FOUR: Principals do not choose support personnel to assume duties from which they derive the least satisfaction.

This hypothesis is accepted since most principals chose curriculum associates in spite of the fact that curriculum matters (a sub-function of educational programme) yielded an average satisfaction score of 4.260, whereas business administration, and some aspects of personnel management yielded the lowest satisfaction scores.

HYPOTHESIS FIVE: Principals in the seven boards do not derive significantly different amounts of satisfaction from the performance of any task.

Chi-square analysis, and subsequent t-tests, indicated significant differences among principals of the seven boards in four of the tested tasks. Conversely, no significant differences existed in 13 of the tasks. However, the hypothesis must be rejected on the basis of the four variables where differences did occur. These were counselling students, meeting with parents, communicating with the community, and developing public relations.

HYPOTHESIS SIX: Principals of small, medium, or large schools do not derive significantly different amounts of satisfaction from the performance of any task.

Chi-square analysis failed to find any significant differences in satisfaction responses among principals of small, medium, or large schools. Therefore, this hypothesis is accepted.

HYPOTHESIS SEVEN: Principals of junior, composite, or senior schools do not derive significantly different amounts of satisfaction from the performance of any task.

Chi-square analysis indicated significant differences in two satisfaction responses among principals of junior, composite, and senior schools. However, subsequent t-tests failed to find significant differences in any of the six possible comparisons. Therefore, this hypothesis is accepted.

Conclusions Drawn from the Data from Part B

The primary purpose of Part B of the study was to investigate the amount of satisfaction gained from the performance of the 17 component tasks identified in Part A. The conceptual model indicated that satisfaction with a task led to increased congruence between the normative and personal dimensions of social behaviour. If the principal was personally satisfied by the performance of a task, the resulting behaviour would be efficient as well as effective. If, on the other hand, the principal was dissatisfied with the performance of a task, he could either avoid it and run the risk of being judged ineffective, or perform it with a resulting loss of efficiency. According to Getzels et al (1968), inefficient behaviour is the result of frustration stemming from the high cost in psychic energy of performing unsatisfying tasks.

Melton (1971) and Nostrand (1973) had noted in their studies that ideally, principals desired spending more time in leadership activities and less in management activities. Many authors, such as Wiggins (1970), Goldsborough et al (1971) and Becker et al (1971) had stated that leadership activities were the most appropriate functions for the principal. In this study, satisfaction scores for educational leadership activities were higher than those for management activities. Notably, the people-related tasks yielded the highest satisfaction scores, closely followed by education tasks in both curriculum activities and speculative-creative

activities.

Except in the case of change and innovation, satisfaction scores were reasonably consistent with importance ratings. Change and innovation activities and school-community relations both ranked high in importance and satisfaction, but both received the smallest time expenditure. Conversely, management tasks were rated low in both importance and satisfaction, and yet these received higher time expenditures. In fact, no correlations between time expenditure and task importance, or between time expenditure and satisfaction were detected. One must construe this to mean that principals are not always choosing to spend their time in the most satisfying ways. Rather, they may be behaving in a transactional manner, at times choosing the normative dimension of social behaviour in order to gain effectiveness, and the personal dimension with greater accompanying satisfaction at other times to gain effectiveness and efficiency. The fact remains that in mediating between the two, the principal is exhibiting social behaviour which does not maximize satisfaction. Rather, he is choosing an expedient course, with some loss of satisfaction, to ensure attainment of organizational goals. Such is likely the nature of all managerial roles. Maximum satisfaction is ideal, but most managers (principals) may have to settle for less.

The effects of organizational variables on satisfaction seemed to be few. Among these, principals with three to five years experience gained more satisfaction from the task of studying innovations than their more experienced counterparts. No significant differences were noted among principals with one or two years experience as opposed to more experienced principals, but there were very few respondents in these two experience categories. Since a similar sample of principals rated this

task as less important, and spent little time in the change and innovation function, it must be presumed that less satisfaction among more experienced principals results from the expediencies of the job. Even if it is fairly satisfying, there are other more important things to do.

More experienced principals also tend to gain less satisfaction from improving teacher proficiency and developing public relations. Since more experienced principals are normally assigned to larger schools of the composite or senior type, school size and school type may be inextricably interwoven with years of experience. In larger schools, principals are more satisfied with supervising teachers. Thus, as school size increases along with the principal's experience, the incumbent is less inclined to change or improve, and more inclined to maintain. In composite and senior schools, principals were less satisfied with serving as a resource person. This may be a function of higher expertise among more specialized staff in such schools, where teachers tend to teach fewer subjects. In that case resource persons are less necessary. On the other hand, as Barraclough (1973) stated in citing Arrends and Essig, this lack of satisfaction with serving as a resource person may be a function of the difficulty principals have in being expert in all subjects. Such difficulties and staff specialization does not occur at the junior school level, where principals get more satisfaction from serving as a resource person.

It is interesting to note that, as principals remain in one school, they become less satisfied with the task of dealing with student discipline problems, and more satisfied with planning curriculum. As a principal's tenure in a school increases, he may become less satisfied with maintaining order, which no doubt is rather repetitive in the case of student discipline and more satisfied with educational programme or planning tasks.

He is established and comfortable in his school, and no longer seeks to establish control. The void may now be filled with more speculative activities, which tend to maximize satisfaction. In this way, the principal's behaviour becomes more efficient.

It was also noted that significant differences in satisfaction existed among principals of the seven boards, with respect to four people-related tasks--counselling students, meeting with parents, communicating with the community, and developing public relations. However, no significant differences in time expenditure in school-community relations were detected among the seven boards, while in personnel management, all of the variance was accounted for by Peel principals spending more time than Brant, Lincoln and Niagara South principals, and by Brant principals spending less time than Halton, Hamilton and Peel principals. In the task of counselling students, the only significant difference in time spent and satisfaction scores was between Peel and Lincoln principals, where Peel principals spent more time and were more satisfied than Lincoln principals. Almost all (19 of 24) the differences in satisfaction with the four tasks were attributed to Wentworth principals being lower than principals of other boards. The studies provided insufficient data to explain this phenomenon. The only conclusion one can make is that Wentworth principals were generally less satisfied than other principals with the four tasks which were all people-related, especially with school-community relations. On the other hand, they were not significantly different in satisfaction in seven other people-related tasks.

Perhaps the most striking finding was the choice of assistant, where the vast majority of principals desired a curriculum associate. Barraclough (1973) had noted that Arrends and Essig suggested the employment of a

curriculum associate, but most other authors, such as Goldstein (1975), and Goldsborough et al (1971) citing Fraser and Trump, leaned toward hiring managing assistants. The conceptual model also indicated that low satisfaction tasks would be the first to be delegated, if appropriate personnel were available. However, the study shows that business assistants or clerks, who might perform the low satisfaction tasks which are business or management oriented, were chosen by only a small percentage of the responding principals. On the other hand, curriculum associates, who would perform tasks identified as important as well as satisfying to principals, were chosen by almost 80% of the responding principals.

This unexpected finding poses more questions than it answers. However, although the study presents no supporting data, informal discussions with some principals have revealed some possible answers. Chiefly, principals lack expertise in the field of curriculum design and development. Thus, they must rely upon outside experts, who are not always available when needed. If this is true, one must also query the formal training of principals. Apparently, curriculum skills are not part of the common training of principals, although some principals have taken post-graduate courses in this field. As it stands, even if business assistants were provided, the principal would not be able to do much more in curriculum with the extra available time, simply because he lacks the training.

There is support for this thesis in the literature extant on the subject. Burnes et al (1975), in a study of 12 participating principals, stated that the principals felt they were most competent in school management and administration. Becker et al (1971), Melton (1971), and Rock and Hemphill (1966), from the results of their studies, essentially agreed, and

placed learning theory and curriculum development high on the list of required competencies for principals. Dols (1974) agreed and added that in-service training could be used to develop needed skills in curriculum matters.

In conclusion, principals are prepared to delegate an important leadership activity to others. This would detract from their overall leadership role and leave more time for other functions. One suspects that the time would be filled in large part by administrative tasks. The danger inherent in such a shift in time expenditure is that principals would be steering toward a school management role, with emphasis on maintenance rather than leadership. In terms of the conceptual framework, emphasis on maintenance would lead to a reduction in satisfaction in the role of the principal, and thus a loss of efficiency. Behaviour that is inefficient is ultimately ineffective, and therefore reference groups would perceive the principal as a less effective member of the educational community.

Implications of the Study

In the rationale, it was stated that in the United States, principals were spending more and more time in administrative functions, and less in educational leadership. It would appear that, in the seven boards surveyed in Southern Ontario, principals are spending more time on educational leadership than on administration. No data regarding time expenditures in the five functions of the principal in Southern Ontario was available for comparison purposes with the time expenditure data of this study. Therefore it is impossible to determine from time expenditures alone whether the principalship is moving toward leadership or management.

The only concrete data available which showed variation in time expenditures among elementary school principals were those pertaining to enrollment and time expenditures in educational programme. These findings warrant further investigation, but if society wishes principals to work in educational programme, smaller school units (under 500) should be considered.

Since there is a degree of correlation between the increase in the number of years in a school and increase in satisfaction with planning curriculum, there is at least a small amount of evidence that principals who remain in one school for a period of time may become less concerned with management and more concerned with educational leadership. Planning curriculum correlates somewhat with studying innovations. Therefore, principals who have been in charge of a school for a time may feel that they can afford the time to indulge in some speculative activities. Again, if society wants its principals to work in educational programme, boards should consider longer periods of tenure for principals.

It is the choice of assistant that provides some indication of the direction in which the principalship is moving in Southern Ontario. As it stands, principals feel they need assistance in curriculum matters. If nothing is done, principals will continue to spend some time in educational leadership, but avoid other aspects. In terms of the model, the principal may be doing neither an effective nor efficient job, since he lacks expertise.

If the principal is given appropriate training in curriculum development he would increase the effectiveness and efficiency of his work through satisfaction. However, his work as an educational leader might be hampered by having to spend time in administrative functions, which do not

really require his expertise. This, of course, could be rectified by making business assistants available. This would be possible even in small schools, by assigning one business assistant to a family of schools. Such a procedure would obviously be a large step in the direction of educational leadership as the function of the principal, and according to the satisfaction scores, yield highly effective and efficient behaviour.

If, on the other hand, the principal is assigned a curriculum associate, the principal would be relieved of all but the people-oriented leadership tasks. Such an associate could be utilized, again on a time-sharing basis, in a family of schools. However, the principal would lose a satisfying function of his work. He would spend more time in administrative, personnel and community relations matters. Any increase in administrative or maintenance tasks would facilitate the principal functioning as a building manager, and in terms of this study, require the performance of tasks which are largely normative and low in satisfaction. These task performances might lead to ultimate frustration and loss of efficiency. In addition, Becker et al (1971), Melton (1971) and Rock and Hemphill (1966) all indicated that personnel and political skills ranked fairly high on the list of needed competencies for principals. In their studies, principals indicated that training in these areas was also needed, although not as badly as training in curriculum.

In view of the findings of this study, there is inherent in the choice of curriculum assistant a move toward the role of building manager. The implication for the Ministry of Education, boards of education, and even for prospective or incumbent principals is that curriculum training is needed immediately if Ontario schools require educational leaders in the role of the principal.

Some Questions Arising from the Study

During the study, some questions came to light which could not be answered with the present data. These are given here, and hopefully will provide stimulus for future study.

1. Why did some boards vary in terms of time expenditures in personnel management and educational programme? Were the differences functions of job descriptions, board policy, or of the philosophy of senior board officials?
2. What are the effects of reference group expectations on principal time expenditures in the five functions, if reference groups include teachers, students, parents of students, senior board officials, and the elected trustees?
3. What is the present state of principal training in Ontario, with respect to the acquisition of curriculum skills, child growth and development theory, supervisory skills, administrative skills, instructional improvement skills, and community relations (political) skills?
4. Would the results of this study, based in just seven boards, be the same if replicated in other boards in Southern Ontario? in Ontario? in Canada?

Conclusion

The study was begun to investigate time expenditures in the functions of the principal, task importance, satisfaction with the performance of important tasks, and specialized assistance for the principal. The study considered the effect of employing board, enrollment, kind of school, and the availability of vice-principals on time expenditures and task satisfaction as normative variables in a social behaviour setting. It also

considered the years of experience and years of tenure in one school as personal variables in the social behaviour setting.

Obviously, the study has not answered all the questions, but has simply begun the investigation. Other questions must be answered, and replications must be performed in other areas before the state of the principalship in Canada is known.

However, the principalship in the seven boards studied seems to be leadership oriented at the moment. This, according to many, is desirable if the principal is to continue to function as an educator. The principalship is not without its problems, as evidenced by the lack of training and expertise in certain key functions--particularly curriculum. However, if principals can be provided with the essential skills, they will be able to assume the most appropriate role in schools--that of educational leadership.

Appendix A

Table 1: Minimum Standards for Elementary Schools, Revised 1970 (Ohio Association of Elementary School Principals, 1971)

1. Effecting balance between administrative duties and supervision of instruction.
2. Supporting others in responsibilities.
3. Carrying out policies and regulations adopted by the board.
4. Working in a team approach with each staff member to improve instruction.
5. Using all available special services.
6. Getting staff participation in the solution of problems.
7. Appraising the quality of instructional effort and contributions of individual personnel.
8. Conducting the school's self appraisal studies.
9. Maintaining efficient procedures for getting and distributing books, supplies, equipment, and instructional materials.
10. Planning co-operatively for curriculum development, in-service, and staff meetings.
11. Solving behaviour problems.
12. Assuring proper care of the building by custodians, staff, and public.
13. Making and filing accurate records and reports.
14. Working closely with the community and initiating public relations.
15. Attending and participating in conferences, workshops, seminars, and visitations.
16. Being active in a professional organization and involved with conference, seminar, and workshop planning.

17. Taking class work in special areas, or working toward an advanced degree.
18. Independently reading professional literature.

Table 2: Task Areas for Principals (McCleary, 1971)

McCleary (1971) found by interview procedure that principals perform fifty-two major tasks, which fall into twelve task areas:

Outside Task Areas

1. District-wide policy development and board of education staff work.
2. Business affairs, including budgeting, accounting, and purchasing.
3. Community relations and services.

Pupil Personnel Activities

4. Pupil personnel items, including guidance, counselling, and services.
5. Student activities, such as music and sports.
6. Pupil control in areas such as discipline and attendance.

Management Areas

7. Building level organization and plant control.
8. Auxiliary services such as cafeteria and transportation.
9. Staff personnel assignments, work conditions, certification, and classification.

Programme Areas

10. Staff improvement by evaluation, in-service, and involvement in policy making.
11. Programme evaluation and planning, curriculum development, and instruction.
12. Research and development projects involving innovation, change, and investigating and testing new techniques.

Table 3: Principal Activities and Percent of Time Spent

	Activity	Approximate % of Time
1.	Administrative planning with superiors, such as superintendent.	4
2.	Administrative planning by yourself or with subordinate administrators.	10
3.	Meetings with groups of teachers regarding curriculum and instruction matters.	5
4.	Meetings with groups of teachers regarding matters other than curriculum and instruction.	4
5.	Work with individual teachers in relation to their teaching proficiency.	5
6.	Supervision of non-certified personnel and grounds maintenance, etc.	5
7.	Meetings with students on disciplinary matters.	4
8.	Meetings with students on matters other than discipline.	4
9.	Meetings with parents.	3
10.	Meetings with laymen, either groups or individuals (not as parents).	2
11.	Classroom teaching (and preparation).	1
12.	Supervision of extra-curricular activities.	3
13.	Correspondence.	3
14.	Reading professional literature (books, journals, etc.).	4
15.	Participation in professional educational groups (local, state, national).	2
16.	Private thought and reflection about administrative	

Activity	Approximate % of Time
problems.	4
17. Testing activities.	2
18. Other professional activities, not listed above.	4

Table 4: Data from the Job Functions Inventory for School Principals (Baehr, 1975)

Baehr (1975) reported data from the Job Functions Inventory for School Principals, administered to a national sample of principals, 619 of whom responded. The results are as follows:

Function	Mean Raw Score	Standard Deviation
Relations with People and Groups		
1. Personal handling of student adjustment problems.	32.66	8.15
2. Organization and Extra-curricular activities.	15.17	6.15
3. Individual student development.	14.99	4.28
4. Utilization of Specialized Staff.	27.48	4.90
5. Evaluation of Teaching Performance.	43.60	6.07
6. Collegial Contacts.	15.27	3.56
7. Racial and Ethnic Group Problems.	26.99	9.81
8. Trouble Shooting and Problem Solving.	14.54	3.40
9. Community Involvement and Support.	34.94	6.67
10. Dealing with Gangs.	6.60	3.77
Curriculum		
11. Curriculum Development.	18.94	4.16
12. Instructional Materials.	19.26	4.14

Function	Mean Raw Score	Standard Deviation
Personnel		
13. Staffing.	23.51	6.64
14. Working with Unions.	16.26	5.08
General Administration		
15. Working with central office.	40.32	5.88
16. Safety Regulations.	23.83	4.99
17. Fiscal Control.	21.09	4.99

Table 5: Self-observed behaviours of principals (Fredriksson, 1974)

Behaviour Category	Mean Time	Standard Deviation
1. Own teaching	14.98	9.85
2. Pupils	8.08	7.47
3. Teachers	18.88	13.96
4. Parents	5.15	5.27
5. Ancillary Staff	2.48	3.53
6. Conferences	14.35	7.66
7. Authorities	3.60	3.38
8. Planning	15.30	9.22
9. Office Work	22.77	16.81
10. Purchase Budget	7.12	7.00
11. Building Premises	2.31	2.55

Table 6: 51 Administrative behaviours of urban principals, grouped according to Griffiths decision-making theory (Cuttitta, 1975)

Educational Programme

1. To organize a self-contained classroom on the secondary school level.

Staff Development

1. To observe a lesson taught by a teacher.
2. To conduct a post-observation conference with a teacher
3. To plan and lead a group conference with teachers to demonstrate new instructional materials
4. To assist substitute teachers in classroom management

Conflict Resolution

1. To involve parental co-operation in improving a child's conduct in school
2. To determine the alternate class placement of an acting-out child
3. To respond to a parent's request for a specific class placement of a child
4. To respond to a parent's request to make a teacher available for an unscheduled guidance conference.
5. To arrange for the collection of data required for a pupil suspension hearing.
6. To respond to reports from a security guard about pupils fighting in a classroom.
7. To confer with the school Parents' Council on school policy.
8. To order library and textbooks which reflect community norms.

Management of School

1. To formulate goals and objectives for the next academic year.
2. To lead a meeting of assistant principals to communicate school district and central board policy decisions.
3. To publish a calendar of daily events.
4. To publish an end-of-year calendar.
5. To schedule departmental and grade staff conferences.
6. To organize school-wide subject area fairs.

Management of School (cont'd.)

7. To distribute courses of study and curriculum bulletins to staff members as needed.
8. To analyze the results of school-wide standardized tests, to determine pupil instructional needs.
9. To organize a school-wide standardized testing program.
10. To replenish textbooks for the next academic year.
11. To communicate guidelines for the reorganization of classes for the next academic year.
12. To schedule assembly programs.
13. To interview persons volunteering to assist in classroom instruction.
14. To establish co-operative working relationships with community social service agencies.
15. To establish a format and routines for teachers' reporting of pupil attendance on a daily basis.
16. To evaluate and arrange the discharge of long-term absent pupils.
17. To plan the follow-up of pupil lateness.
18. To enforce guidelines for the release of an ill child to go home.
19. To secure medical attention for a child injured in school.
20. To schedule fire drills, in accordance with legal requirements.
21. To schedule teachers to supervise pupils in the lunchroom.
22. To establish and enforce procedures for safe pupil entrance and dismissal.
23. To fulfill the requirements of the teachers' union agreement as to filling vacant compensatory time positions.
24. To fulfill the requirements of the teachers' union agreement as to class coverage by subject area specialists.

Management of School (cont'd.)

25. To fulfill the requirements of the teachers' union agreement as to upper limit of class enrollment.
26. To fulfill the requirements of the union agreement as to auxiliary educational personnel.
27. To lead in the development of a dress code by teachers.
28. To recruit substitute teachers.
29. To divide up the class of an absent teacher when no substitute teacher is available.
30. To evaluate the request by a teacher for the approval of medical expenses for an alleged line-of-duty accident.
31. To implement the security policy on school visitors.
32. To arrange the distribution and the collection of teacher data request forms (New York State).
33. To screen fund-raising appeals to the staff from private agencies.
34. To respond to the school custodian's request that teachers co-operate with the custodial staff.
35. To plan a program to prevent vandalism.
36. To establish procedure for scheduling teachers' use of the school auditorium and gymnasium.
37. To program and monitor the instructional bell schedule.
38. To determine alternative exits and entrances during school's modernization.

Table 7: Principal Duties and percent of principal responsibility (Wright, in Paus, 1970)

	Duty	% of Principal Responsibility
1.	Conferences with pupils	100
2.	Conferences with parents	94.3
3.	Behaviour problems	93.3
4.	Assistance with individual student progress	75.3
5.	Student registration	74.2
6.	Absence	73.2
7.	Educational guidance	71.6
8.	Assistance with curriculum revision	67
9.	Construction of teacher timetables	61.9
10.	Classroom observation	53.6

Table 8: Principal Duties and percent of time spent (Jarret, in Paus, 1970).

	Duty	% of Time Spent
1.	Administration of the educational program	25
2.	Student personnel services	45
3.	Administration of co-curricular activities	12
4.	School management	8
5.	Community relations	4
6.	Professional and in-service training	6

Table 9: Identified Variables in Articles in Books and Periodicals about various functions of the principal (Wilson and Smith, 1974)

Category	Form	No. of Articles	No. of Identified Variables
Curriculum and Instructional Leadership	Periodicals	141	20
	Books	46	18
Personnel Guidance	Periodicals	231	33
	Books	114	42
School-Community Relations	Periodicals	48	14
	Books	26	11
General Administration	Periodicals	91	14
	Books	67	24
Professional Improvement	Periodicals	49	12
	Books	18	12
Evaluation	Periodicals	53	7
	Books	19	14

Table 10: Actual and Ideal Time Perceptions of Principal Functions in Wayne County, Michigan in 1958, and San Diego County, California in 1968 (Melton, 1971)

Category	Actual Time (%)		Ideal Time %	
	1958	1968	1958	1968
Curriculum and Instructional Leadership	19	18	28	31
Personnel Guidance	16	19	17	18
School-Community Relations	16	11	15	12
Administrative Responsibility	29	33	14	14
Evaluation Responsibility	12	11	15	14
Professional Improvement	8	8	11	11

Table 11: Percent and actual time spent in principal functions (Project R.O.M.E., 1971)

Functional Area	% of Time Spent	Average Minutes Spent by one Principal	
		Weekly	Daily
Curriculum and Instruction	1	58.67	11.73
Staff Personnel	17	417.83	83.57
Student Personnel	22	499.67	99.93
Support Management	16	387.67	77.53
School-Community Interface	8	198.67	39.73
Fiscal Management	0	54.5	10.9
System-wide Policies & Operations	6	167.92	33.58
Miscellaneous	13	291.67	58.33
Unclassified	13	296.92	59.38

Table 12: Level of Principal Competence in Responsibility Areas (McCleary et al, 1971)

Area	Level of Competence (Scale from 0 to 4)
Climate	3.39
Public Relations	3.37
Staff Personnel	3.22
Instruction	3.14
Programs & Planning	3.14
Student Personnel	2.78
Management	2.75

Appendix B

Cover Letter

379 Newbold Drive,
Burlington, Ontario

Dear .....:

I am a teacher in Halton County, and am presently working toward a Master of Education degree at Brock University. To complete my studies, I am writing a thesis researching the role of the principal in this area. The only way I can obtain the necessary data is to come to you -- a principal.

The information you can give me by completing the enclosed questionnaire is essential to my study. It would be greatly appreciated if you would take the ten or fifteen minutes required to complete it, and return it in the enclosed envelope to the person named thereon. That person is assisting me in your area by receiving and forwarding all replies. Since the questionnaire is not to be signed, complete anonymity is guaranteed.

Once again, your input will be much appreciated.

Yours sincerely,

Robert G. Rivers

P.S. If you have any queries, don't hesitate to drop me a line, or call me at:

416-634-2373 (school)
416-632-9430 (home)

QUESTIONNAIRE A

Grades in your school: _____ Enrollment: _____

Vice-principals: _____

Instructions: (a) In the left column is a list of tasks for the principal grouped in five functional categories. Please indicate, in the right column, the approximate total per cent of time you spend carrying out each of the five functions. (b) Please put a check mark beside and to the left of the 15 tasks which are the most important for the role of the principal. Feel free to add other tasks if you feel they are appropriate.

FUNCTIONAL AREA and TASKS	% OF TIME
1. Business Management Budgeting Office management Making reports Keeping records Ordering and dispensing supplies Accounting for non-board funds Correspondence Administrative planning with superintendent	_____ %
2. Personnel Management Teacher supervision Improving teacher proficiency Counselling students Dealing with student discipline matters Supervising non-certified personnel (e.g. custodians) Recruiting Teacher certification Scheduling Providing in-service training Delegating authority to teacher committees Preparing pupil and teacher handbooks	_____ %
3. Educational Programme Matters Curriculum planning Curriculum revising Curriculum implementing Curriculum evaluating Teaching Serving as a resource person Providing for exceptional students Working with consultants	_____ %

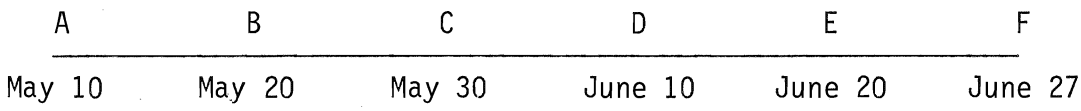
Questionnaire A (cont'd)

4. Change and Innovation Matters
   Professional reading
   Attending in-service courses
   Studying innovative practices, methods, and techniques
   Developing innovative practices, etc. _____%
   Implementing innovative practices

---

5. School-Community Relations
   Interpreting board policy to the community
   Developing public relations
   Communicating with the community
   Home and School meetings _____%
   Meeting with parents
   Meeting with community groups or lay persons

Time Line



A: Questionnaire A to be sent by courier.

B: Questionnaire A with follow-up letter to be sent, if necessary.

C: Questionnaire A to be returned to experimenter.

D: Questionnaire B to be sent out by courier.

E: Questionnaire B with follow-up letter to be sent, if necessary.

F: Questionnaire B to be returned to experimenter.

Follow-up Letter

379 Newbold Drive,
Burlington, Ontario.

Dear .....:

About a week ago, I requested assistance from you in the form of a questionnaire. If you have completed and returned yours, read no further. Just throw all this out and accept my thanks.

However, a number of questionnaires were not returned, and these are urgently needed. If you overlooked the questionnaire, could you take a few minutes now to complete and return the attached copy in the enclosed envelope, to the person named thereon. That person is assisting me in your area by receiving and forwarding all replies.

I value your responses highly. Without them, I cannot complete my study.

Yours sincerely,

Robert G. Rivers

P.S. If you have any queries, don't hesitate to drop me a line, or call me at:
416-634-2373 (school)
416-632-9430 (home)

QUESTIONNAIRE B

For the following, please circle the appropriate response.

Number of years as principal (up to June, 1977): 1 2 3-5 6-10 11+

Number of years as principal of present school (up to June, 1977); 1 2 3-5 6-10 11 or more

Enrollment: up to 300 301 to 500 more than 500

Kind of school: Junior K-8 Senior or Middle
(Circle the one that most closely describes your school.)

PART A

INSTRUCTIONS: A significant number of your colleagues have identified the following tasks as important to the role of the principal. Please rate each task according to the amount of satisfaction you personally gain from performing them, by circling the appropriate number. The number 1 indicates no satisfaction, while 6 indicates a very high degree of satisfaction.

1.	Improving teacher proficiency	1 2 3 4 5 6
2.	Counselling students (non-discipline matters)	1 2 3 4 5 6
3.	Meeting with parents	1 2 3 4 5 6
4.	Communicating with the community	1 2 3 4 5 6
5.	Developing public relations	1 2 3 4 5 6
6.	Supervising teachers	1 2 3 4 5 6
7.	Implementing curriculum	1 2 3 4 5 6
8.	Evaluating curriculum	1 2 3 4 5 6
9.	Serving as a resource person	1 2 3 4 5 6
10.	Dealing with student discipline matters	1 2 3 4 5 6
11.	Studying innovating practices, methods, and techniques	1 2 3 4 5 6
12.	Scheduling	1 2 3 4 5 6
13.	Planning curriculum	1 2 3 4 5 6
14.	Delegating authority to teacher committees	1 2 3 4 5 6
15.	Budgeting	1 2 3 4 5 6

Questionnaire B (Cont'd)

16. Providing in-service training

1	2	3	4	5	6

17. Teaching

1	2	3	4	5	6

PART B

Given the choice, which of the following persons would you rather have on your staff to assist you, in addition to the certified and non-certified staff you already have. (Circle one only).

Business Assistant Clerk Curriculum Associate

Personnel Administrator Research Assistant

Appendix C

Table C1: Other Tasks Checked as Important to the Role of the Principal by less than 40% responding principals

Function	Task	%
Business Administration:	Office Management	25
	Making Reports	23
	Keeping Records	19
	Ordering and Dispensing Supplies	15
	Accounting for non-board Funds	2
	Correspondence	23
	Administrative Planning with the Superintendent	38
Personnel Management:	Supervising non-certified Personnel	4
	Recruiting	19
	Teacher Certification	4
	Preparing Pupil and Teacher Handbooks	4
	*Delegating Authority to the Vice-principal	2
	*Establishing and Maintaining School Operating Procedures	2
	*Staff Morale	2
Educational Programme:	Curriculum Revising	27
	Providing for Exceptional Students	38
	Working with Consultants	29
	*Progress and Promotion	4
Change & Innovation:	Professional Reading	35
	Attending In-service Courses	23
	Developing Innovative Practices	25
	Implementing Innovative Practices	38

Appendix C (Cont'd)

Function	Task	%
School-Community Relations:	Interpreting Board Policy to the Community	33
	Home and School Meetings	8
	Meeting with Community Groups or Lay Persons	19
	*Communicating the Individual Progress of Students to Parents	2

* These tasks were written in by responding principals

Table C2: T-tests Analyzing Significant Differences in Principal Satisfaction Among the Seven Boards in the Task of Counselling Students

Boards Compared	t Ratio	df	Significance
Peel with Wentworth	6.118	26	p<.05 (.01)
Peel with Lincoln	2.114	32	p<.05
Halton with Wentworth	3.48	18	p<.05 (.01)
Brant with Wentworth	3.857	13	p<.05 (.01)
Hamilton with Wentworth	5.262	17	p<.05 (.01)
Niagara South with Wentworth	4.238	13	p<.05 (.01)

Table C3: T-tests Analyzing Significant Differences in Principal Satisfaction Among the Seven Boards in the Task of Meeting with Parents

Boards Compared	t Ratio	df	Significance
Peel with Wentworth	3.676	26	p<.05 (.01)
Halton with Wentworth	2.375	18	p<.05
Brant with Wentworth	3.744	13	p<.05 (.01)
Hamilton with Wentworth	6.241	17	p<.05 (.01)
Niagara South with Wentworth	3.259	12	p<.05 (.01)
Hamilton with Lincoln	2.189	23	p<.05
Hamilton with Niagara South	3.72	19	p<.05 (.01)

Table C4: T-tests Analyzing Significant Differences in Principal Satisfaction Among the Seven Boards in the Task of Communicating with the Community

Boards Compared	t Ratio	df	Significance
Peel with Wentworth	4.692	26	p<.05 (.01)
Halton with Wentworth	4.513	18	p<.05 (.01)
Brant with Wentworth	4.472	13	p<.05 (.01)
Hamilton with Wentworth	3.372	17	p<.05 (.01)
Lincoln with Wentworth	2.293	16	p<.05
Niagara South with Wentworth	3.515	13	p<.05 (.01)

Table C5: T-tests Analyzing Significant Differences in Principal Satisfaction Among the Seven Boards in the Task of Developing Public Relations

Boards Compared	t Ratio	df	Significance
Peel with Wentworth	4.719	26	p<.05 (.01)
Peel with Lincoln	2.125	32	p<.05
Peel with Niagara South	3.31	29	p<.05 (.01)
Halton with Wentworth	2.739	18	p<.05
Brant with Wentworth	2.362	13	p<.05

Table C6: T-tests Analyzing Significant Differences in Principal Satisfaction Among Five Experience Categories in the Task of Studying Innovations

Categories Compared	t Ratio	df	Significance
3 to 5 years with 6 to 10 years	2.105	37	p<.05
3 to 5 years with 11 or more years	2.333	50	p<.05

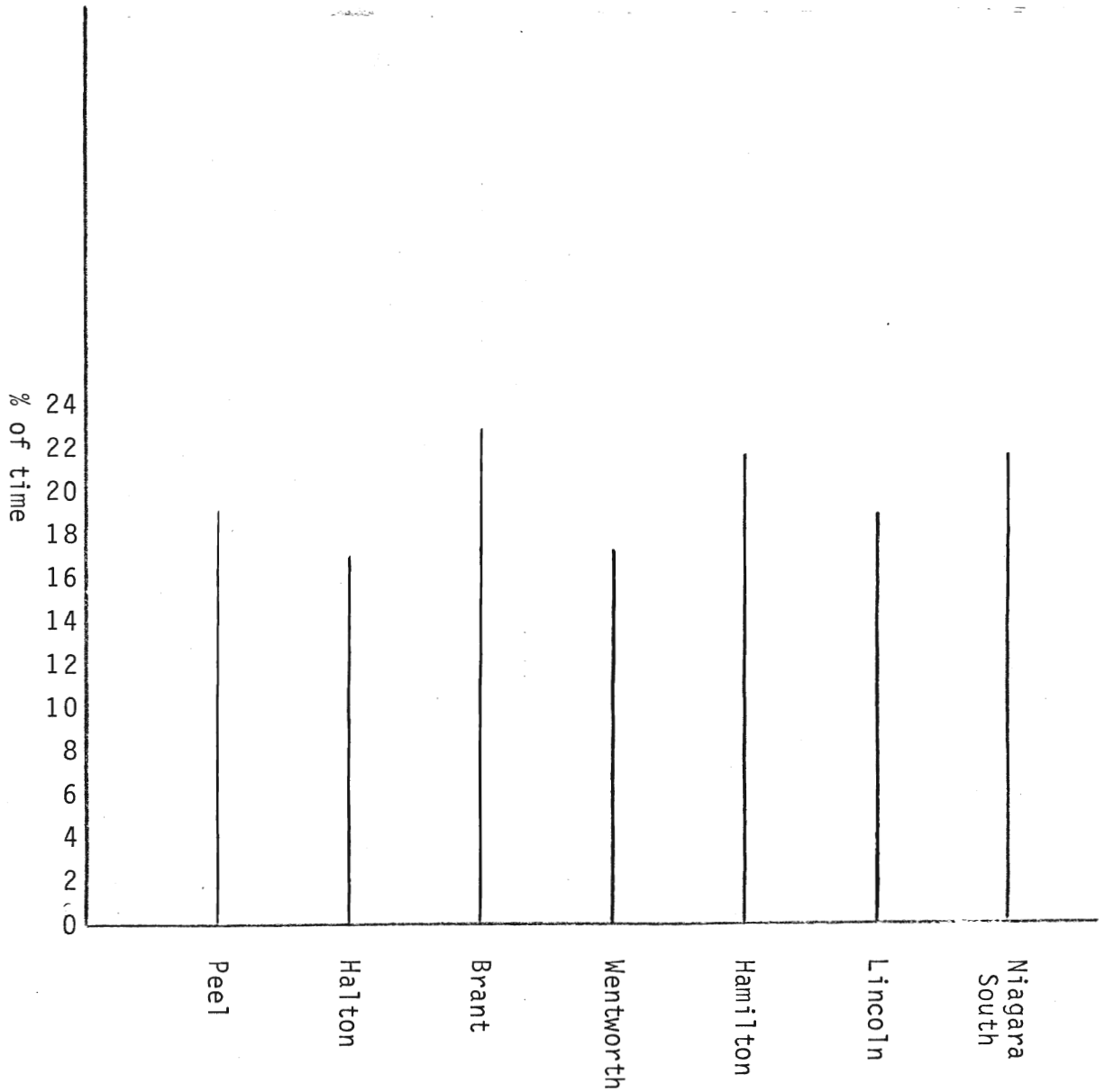


Figure C1: Mean time expenditures in business administration in seven boards

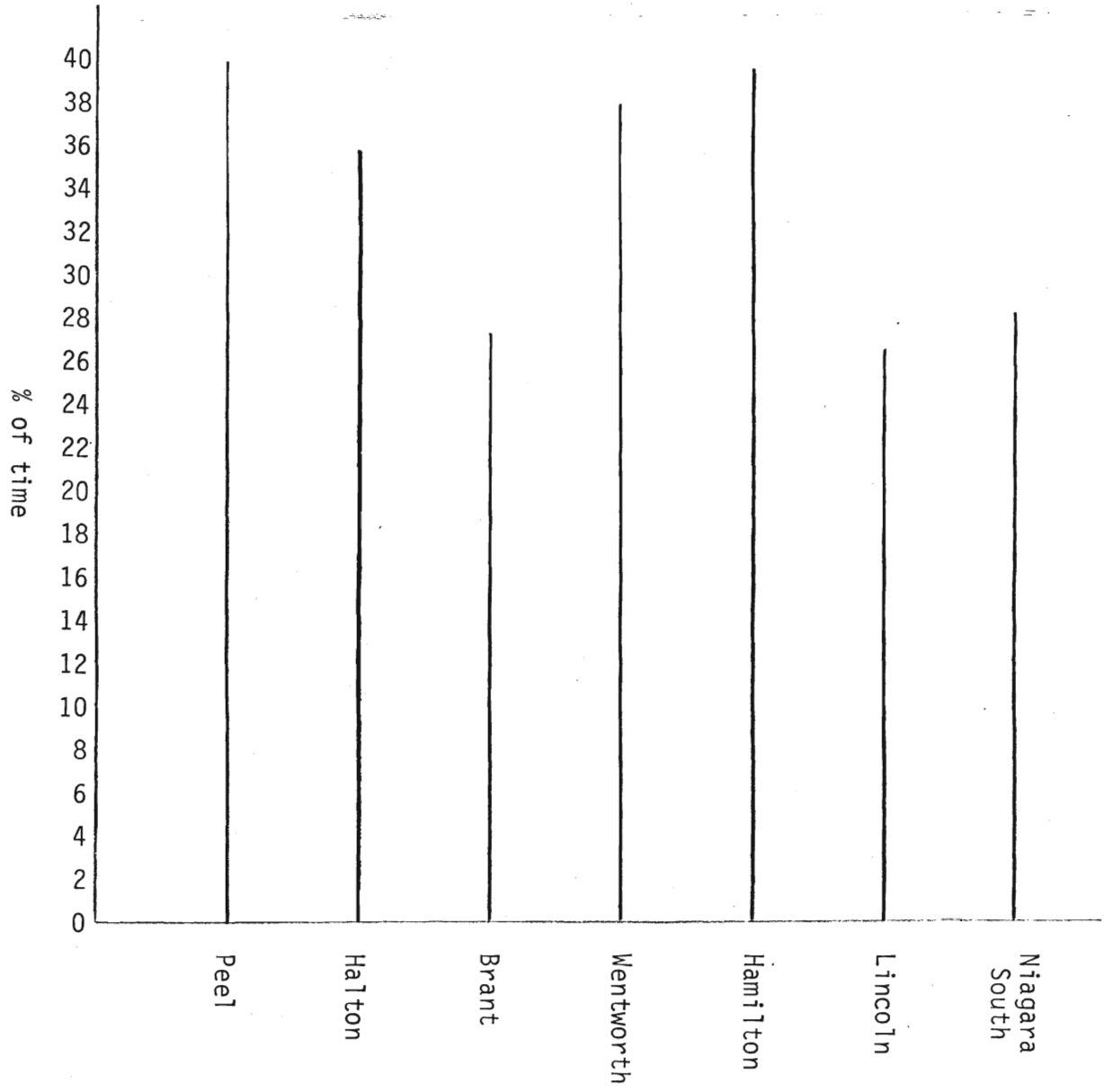


Figure C2: Mean time expenditure in personnel management in seven boards

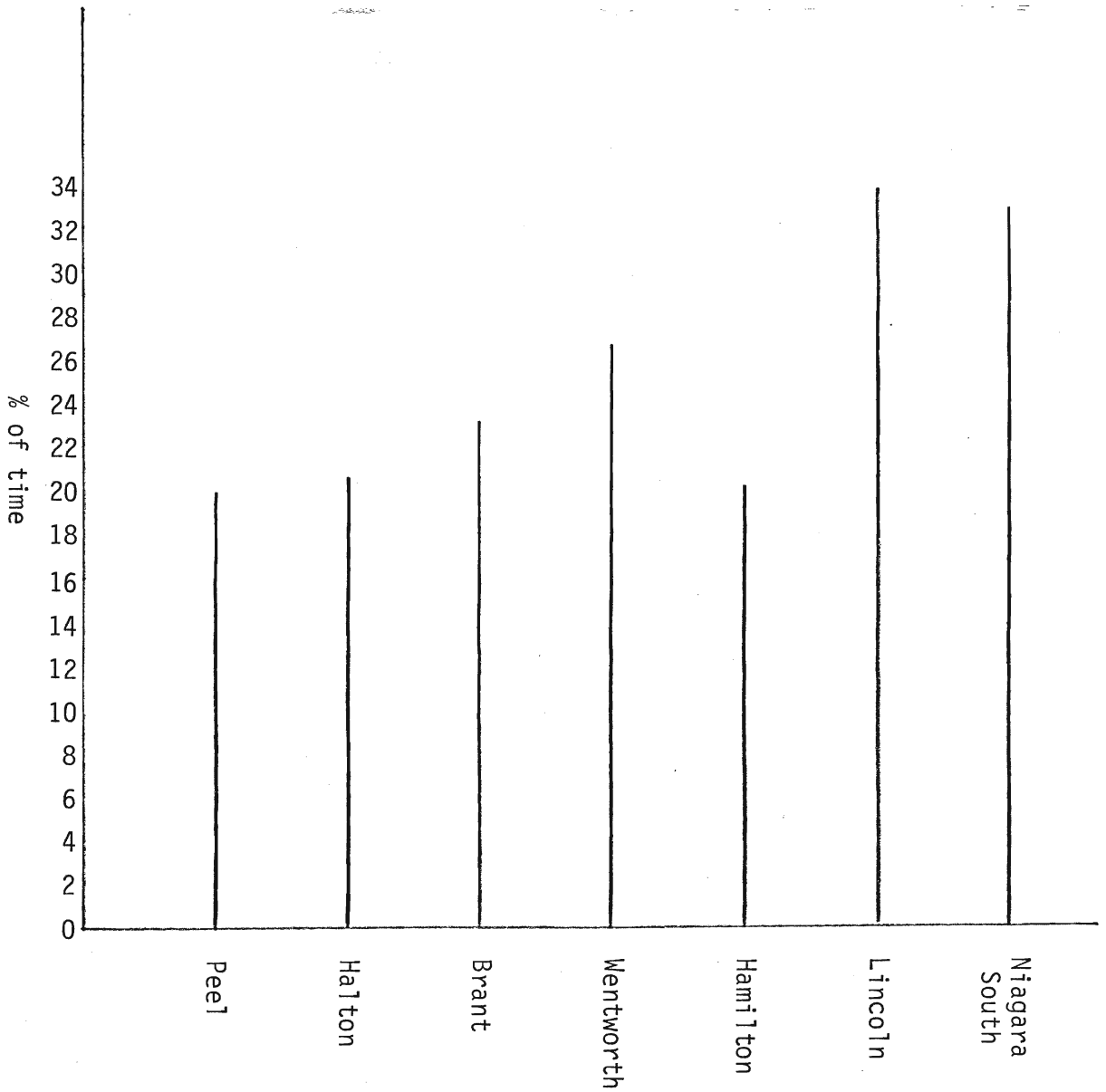


Figure C3: Mean time expenditures in educational programme in seven boards

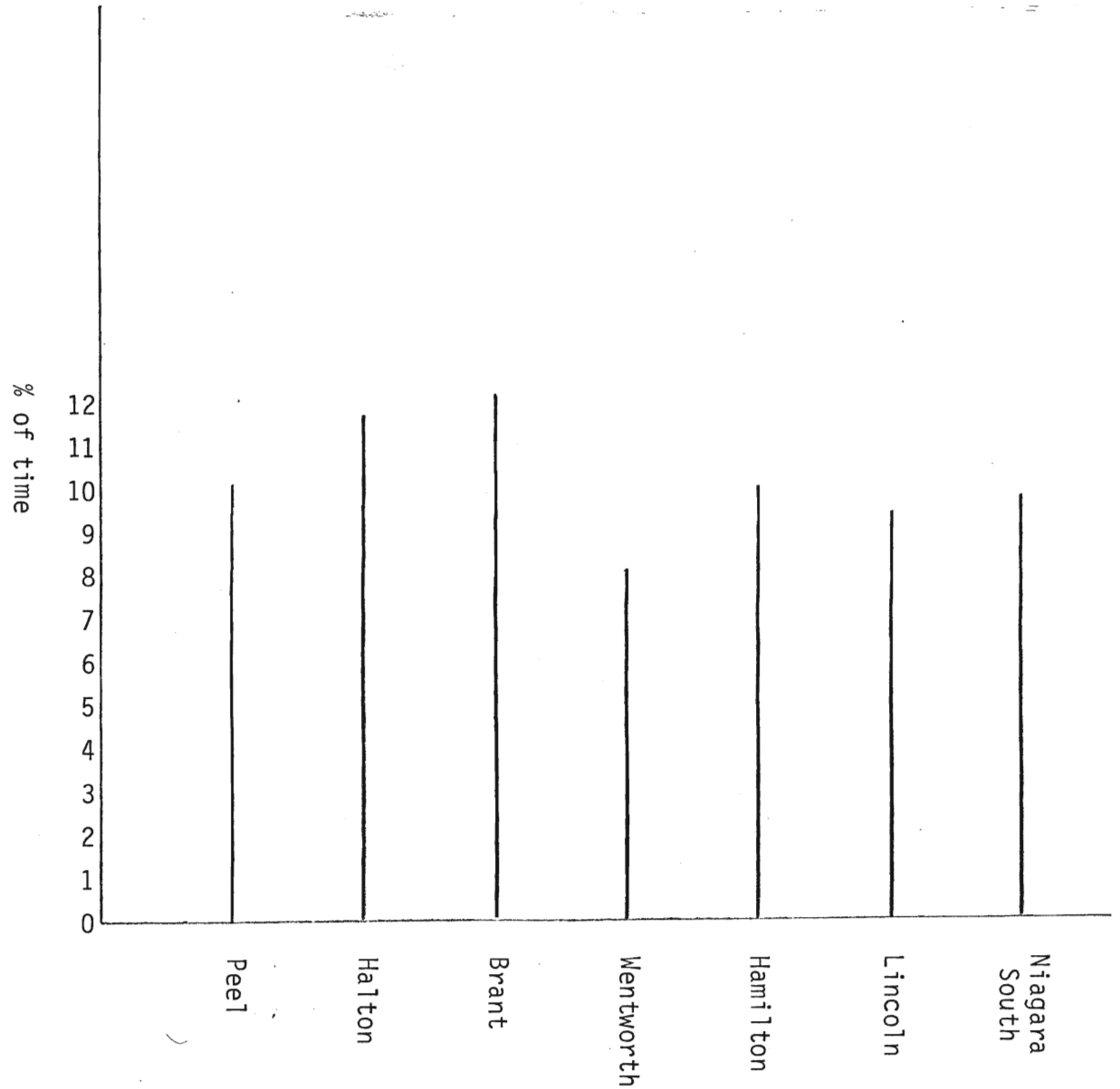


Figure C4: Mean time expenditures in change and innovation in seven boards

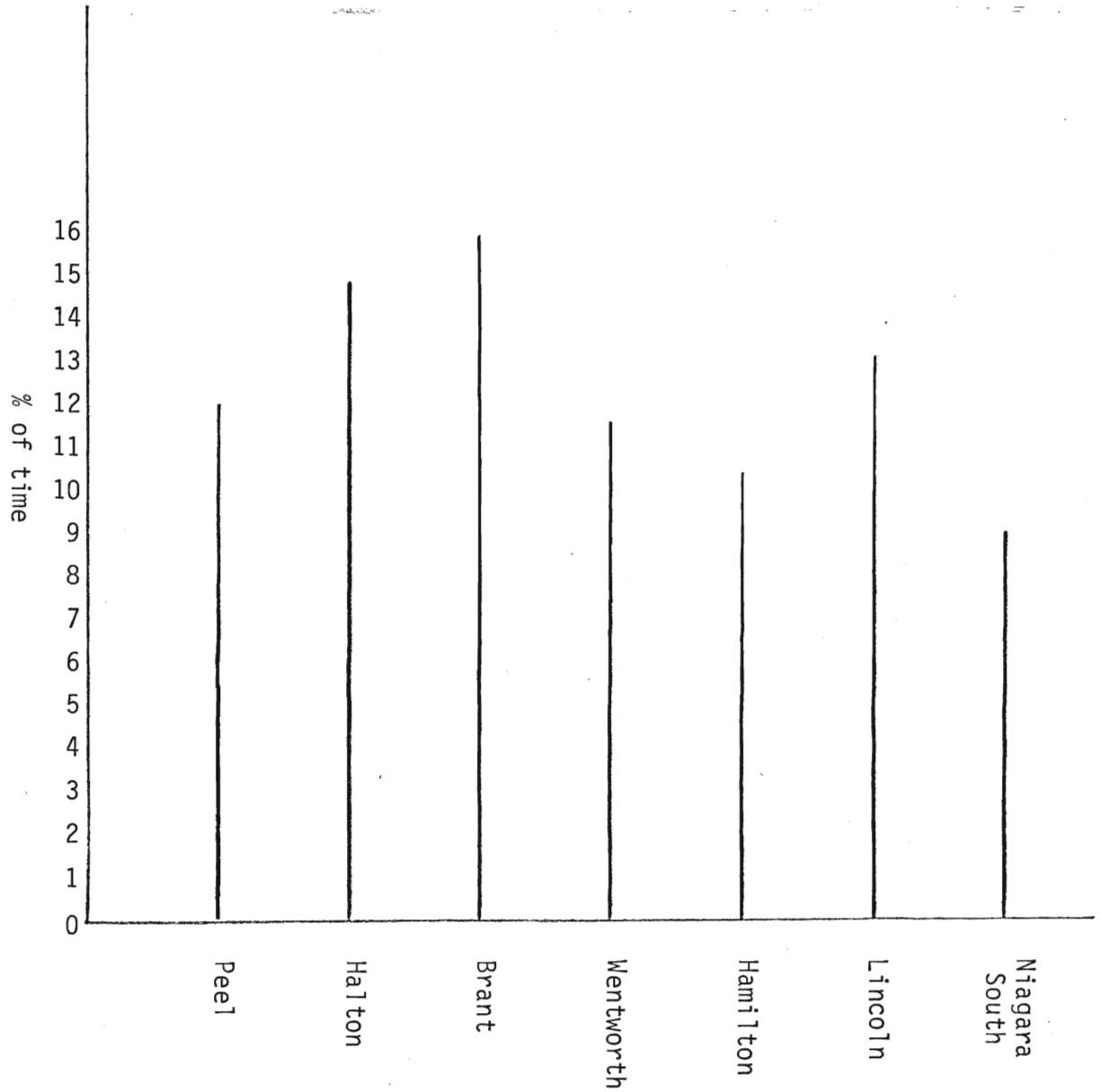


Figure C5: Mean time expenditures in school-community relations in seven boards

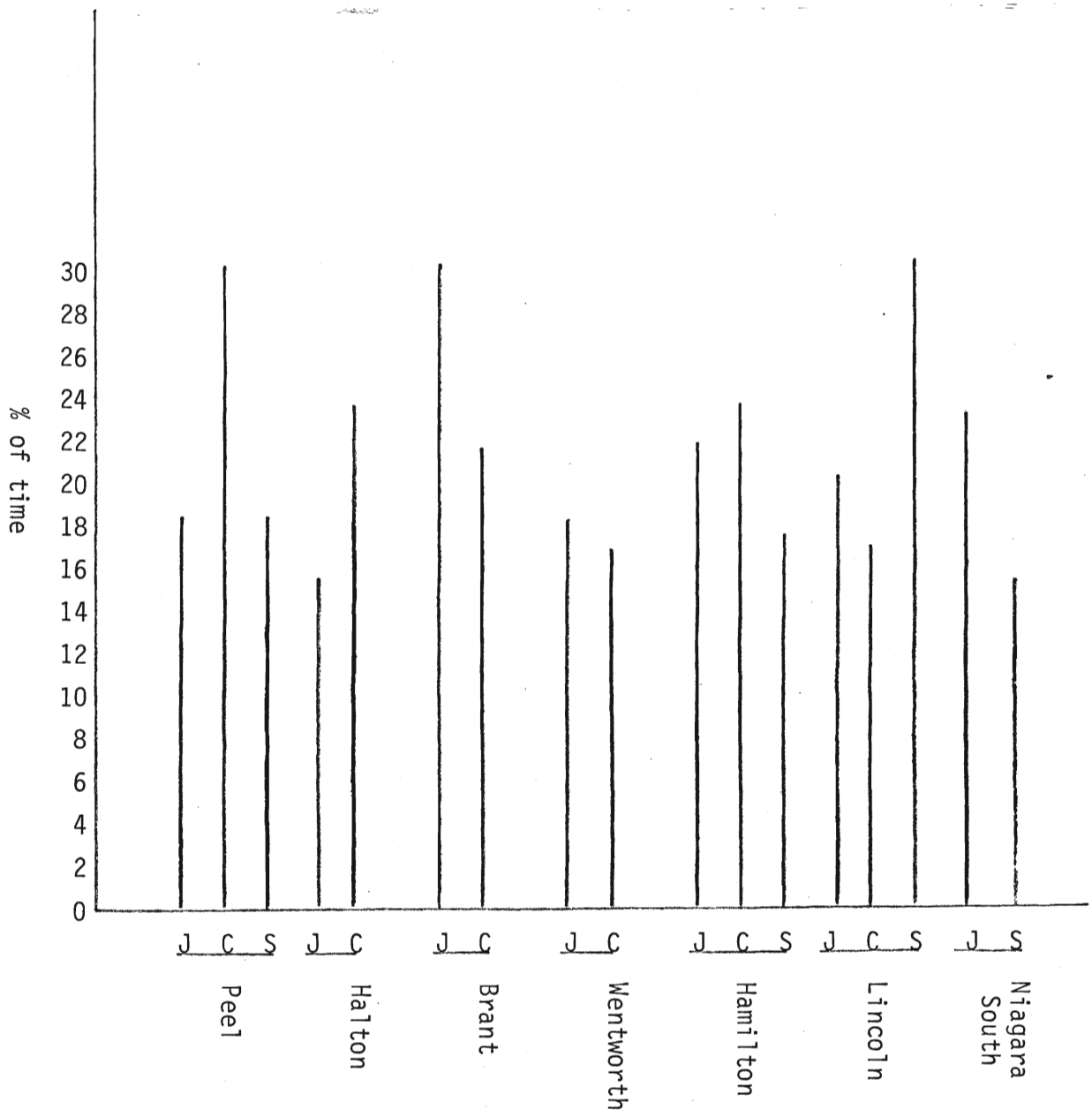


Figure C6: Mean time expenditures in business administration in 3 kinds of schools in 7 boards

J = Junior school
C = Composite school
S = Senior or middle school

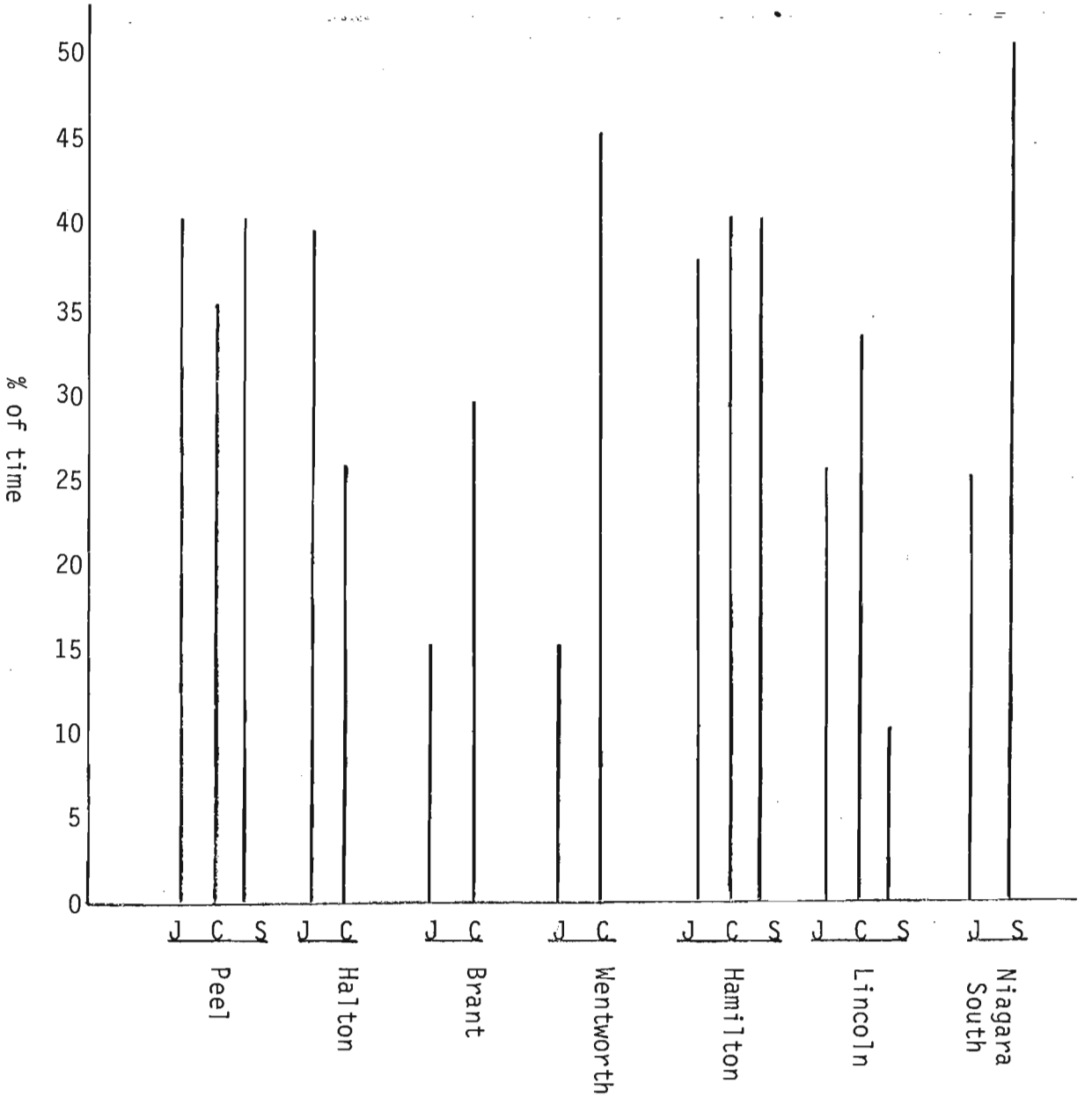


Figure C7: Mean Time Expenditures in personnel management in 3 kinds of schools in 7 boards.

J = Junior School
C = Composite School
S = Senior or Middle School

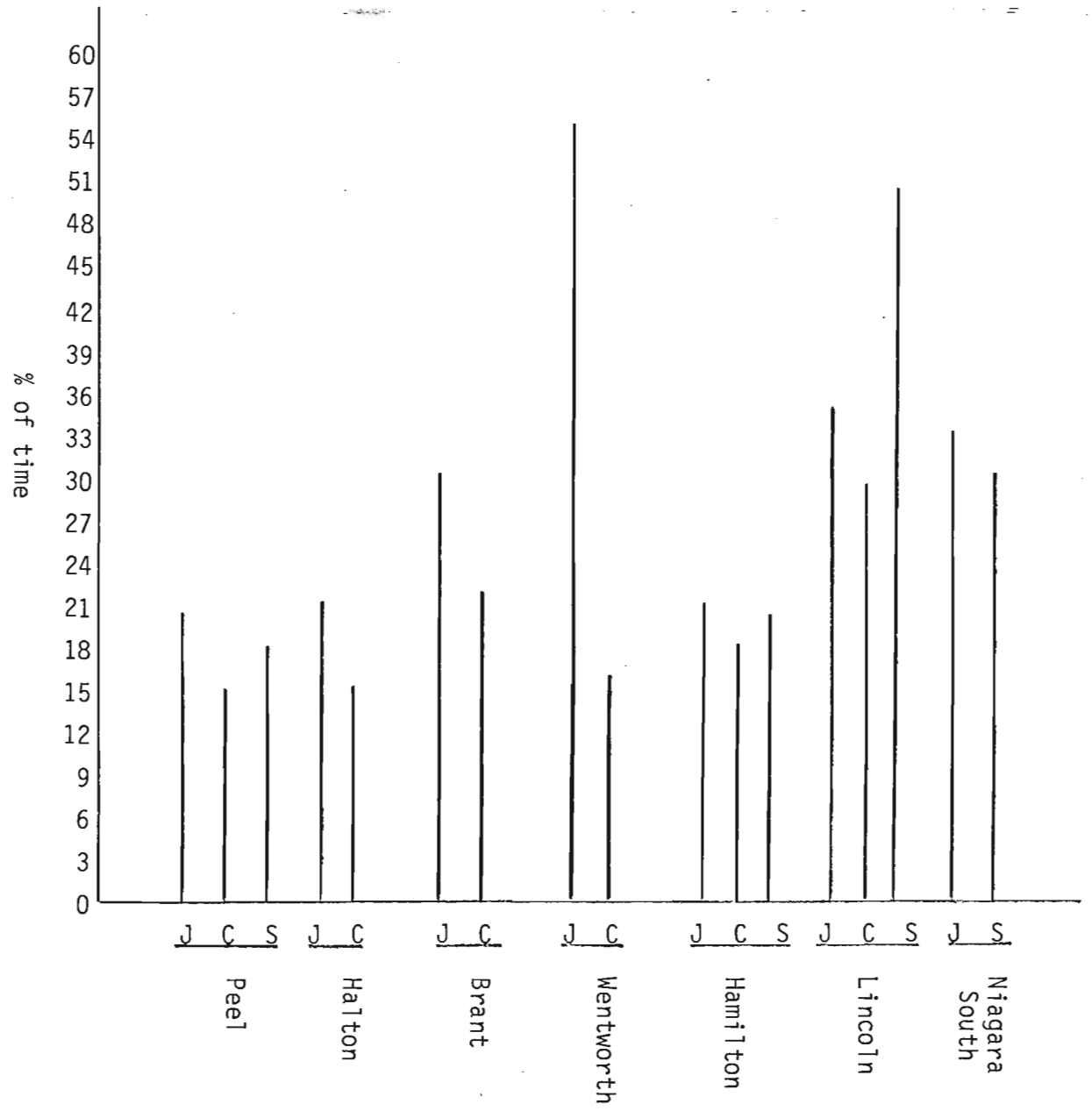


Figure C8: Mean Time Expenditures for Educational Programme in 3 kinds of schools in 7 boards

J = Junior School
C = Composite School
S = Senior or Middle School

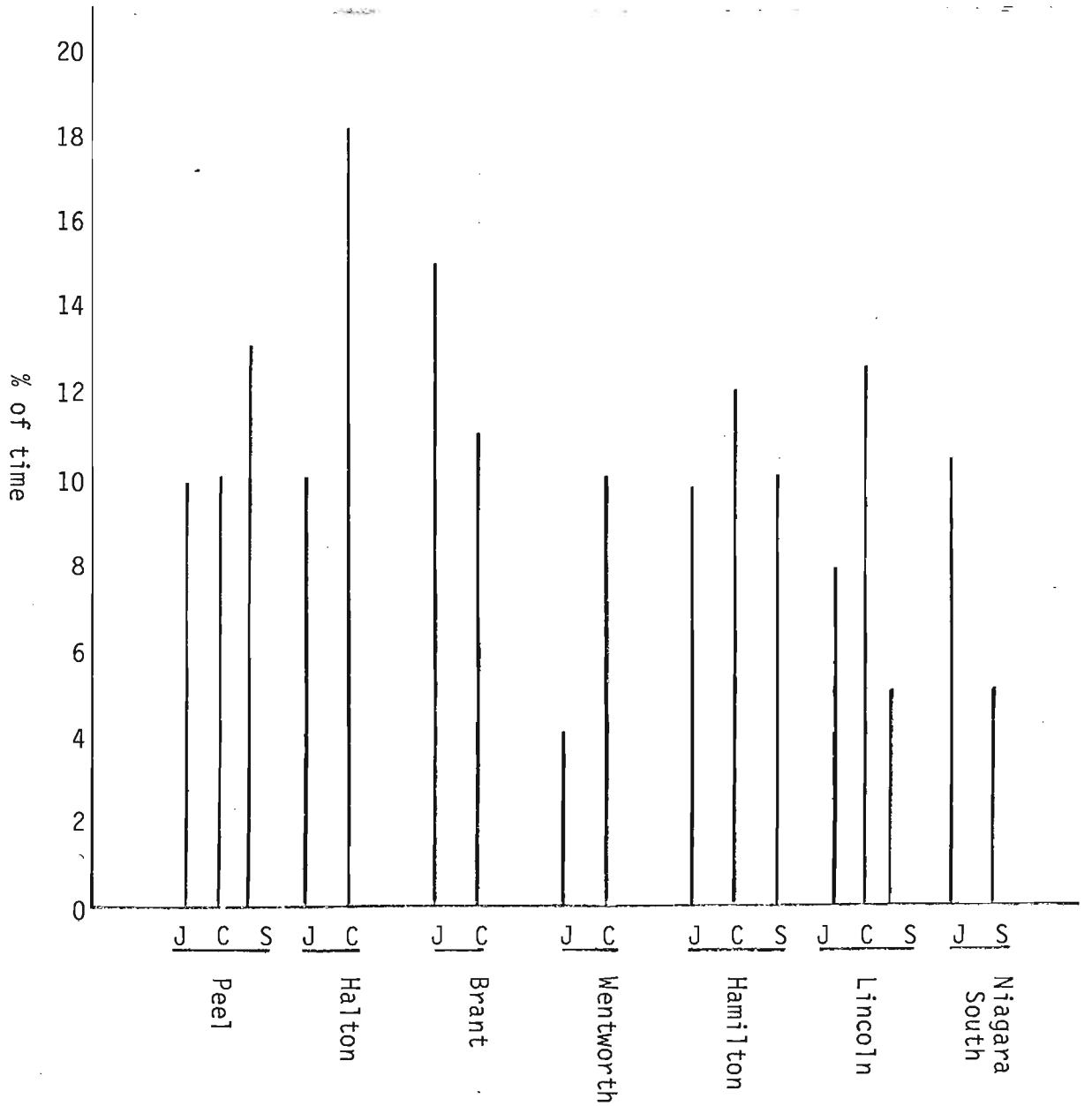


Figure C9: Mean time expenditures for change and innovation in 3 kinds of schools in 7 boards

J = Junior school
C = Composite school
S = Senior or Middle school

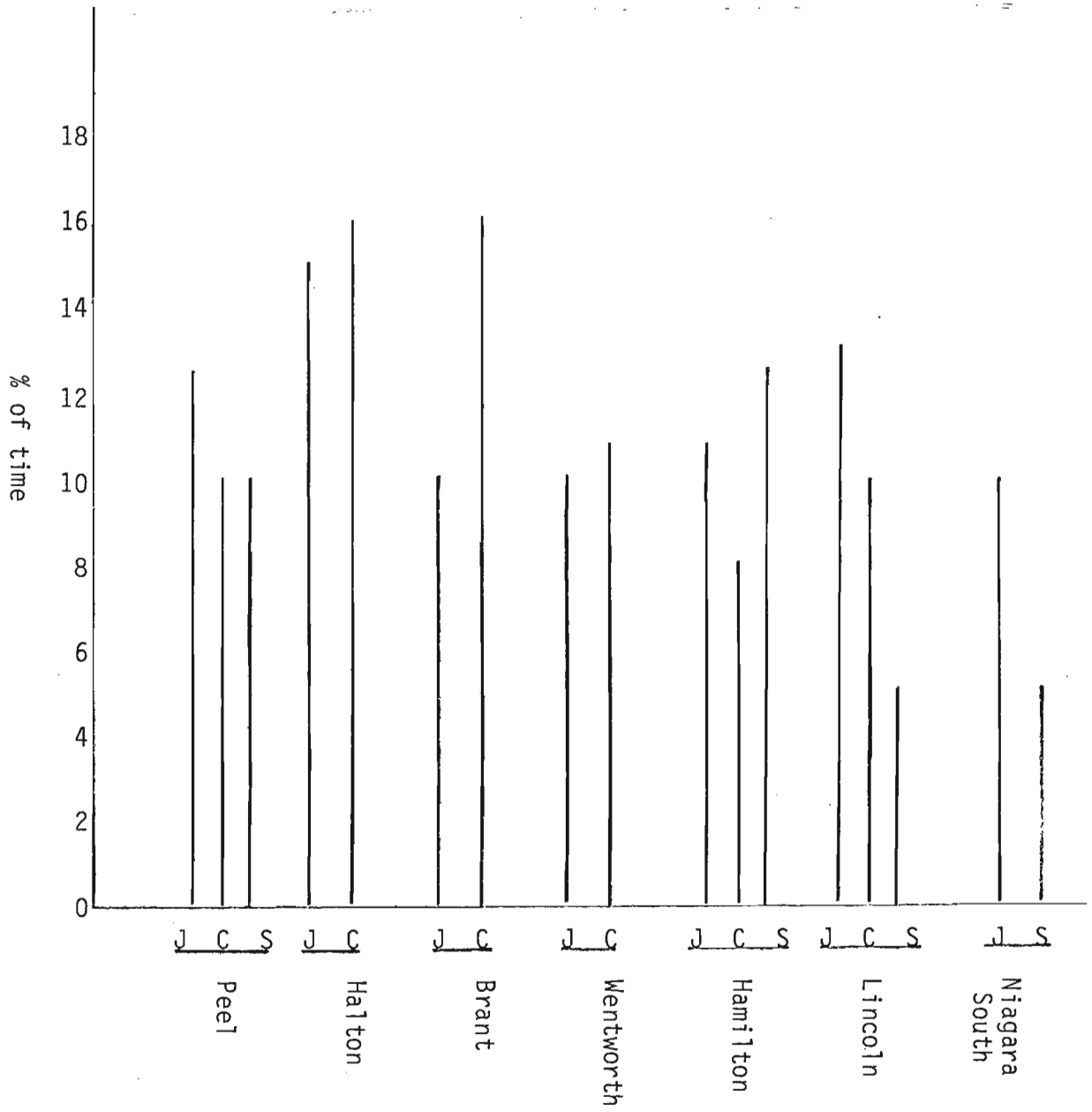


Figure C10: Mean Time Expenditures in School-Community Relations for 3 kinds of schools in 7 boards

J = Junior school
C = Composite school
S = Senior or Middle school

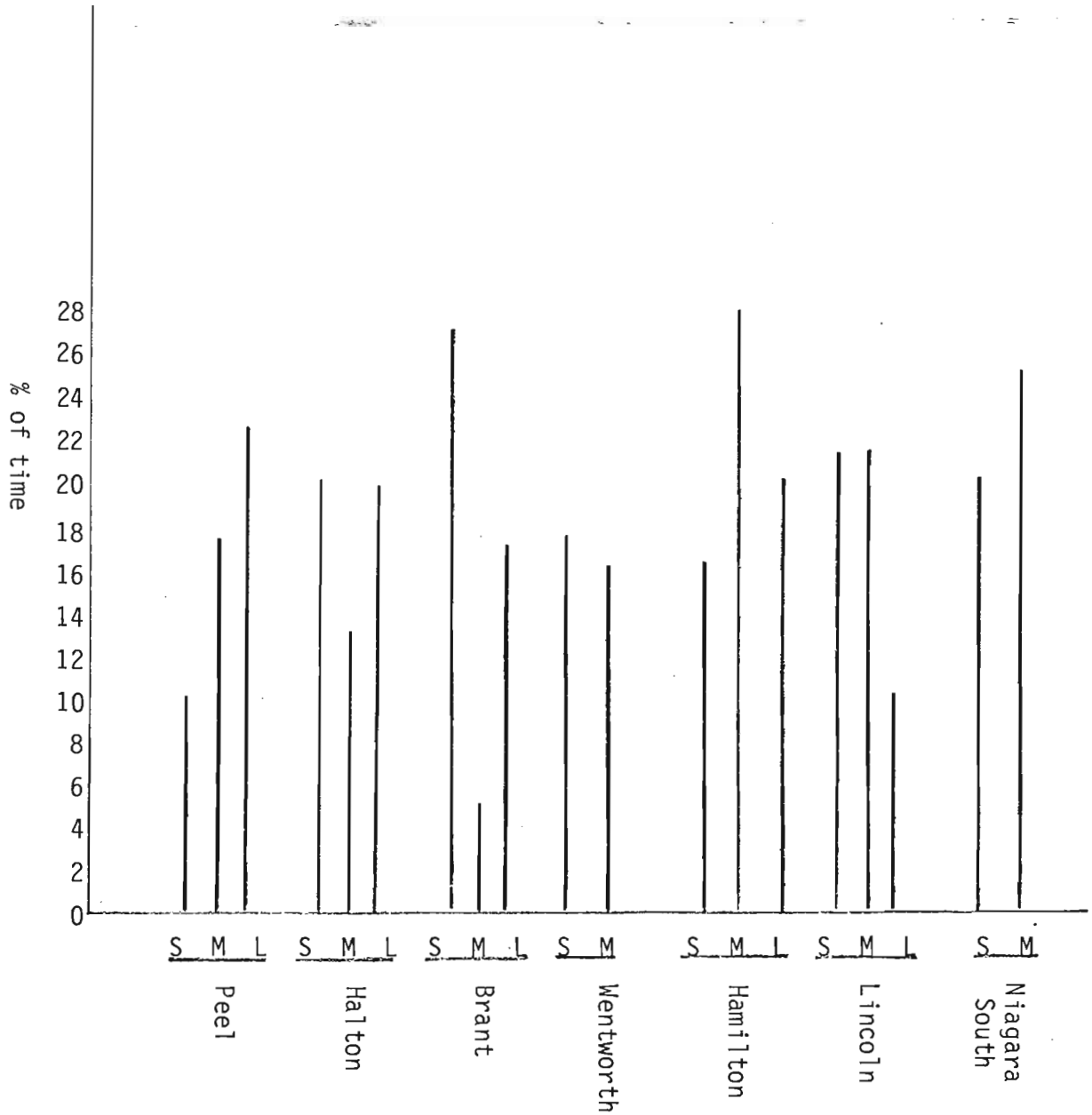


Figure C11: Mean Time Expenditures for Business Administration in 3 sizes of school in 7 boards

S = small
M = medium
L = large

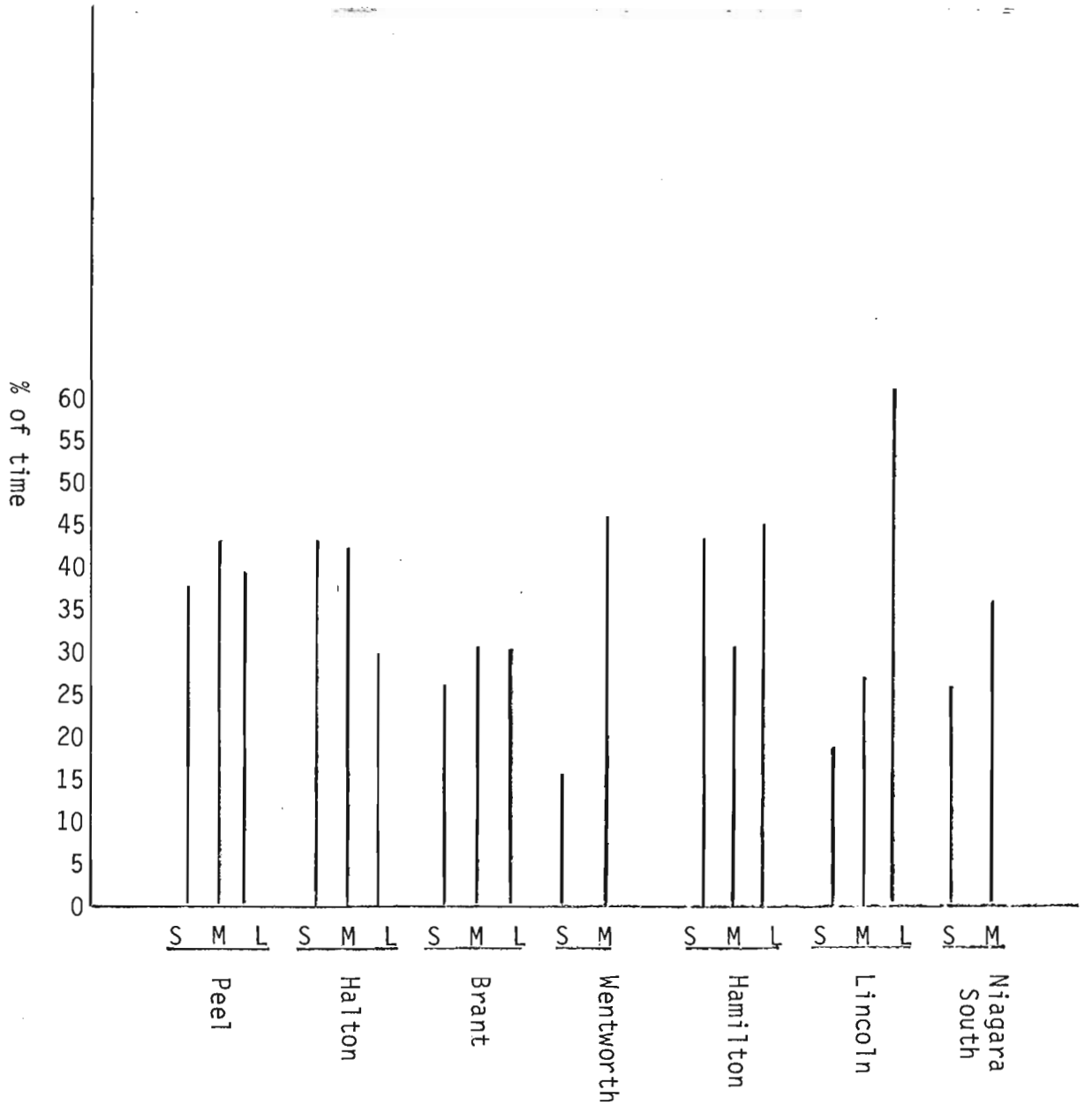


Figure C12: Mean Time Expenditures in Personnel Management in 3 sizes of schools in 7 boards

S = small
M = medium
L = large

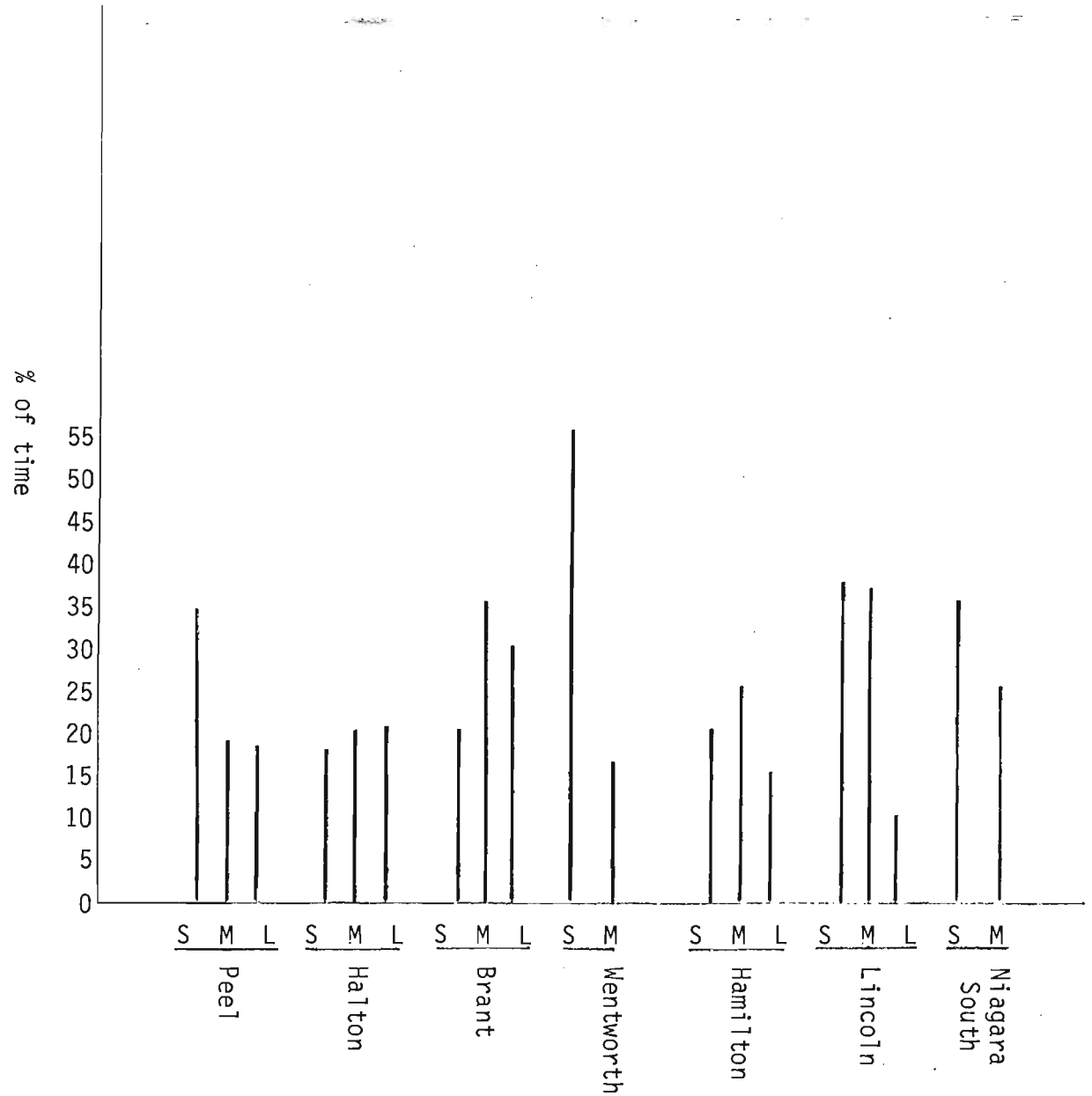


Figure C13: Time Expenditures in Educational Management in 3 sizes of schools in 7 boards.

S = small
M = medium
L = large

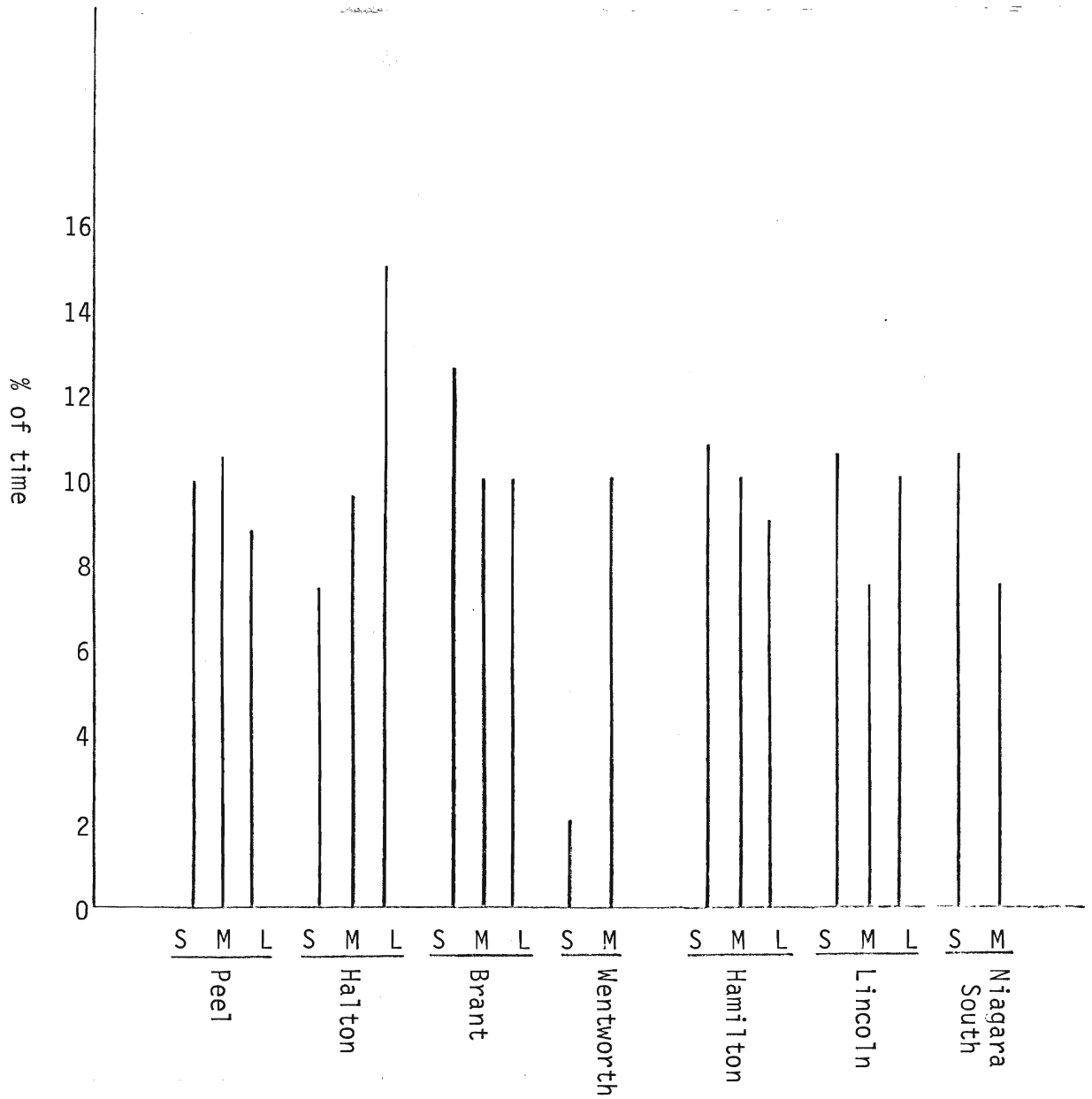


Figure C14: Mean time expenditures in change and innovation in 3 sizes of schools in 7 boards.

S = small
M = medium
L = large

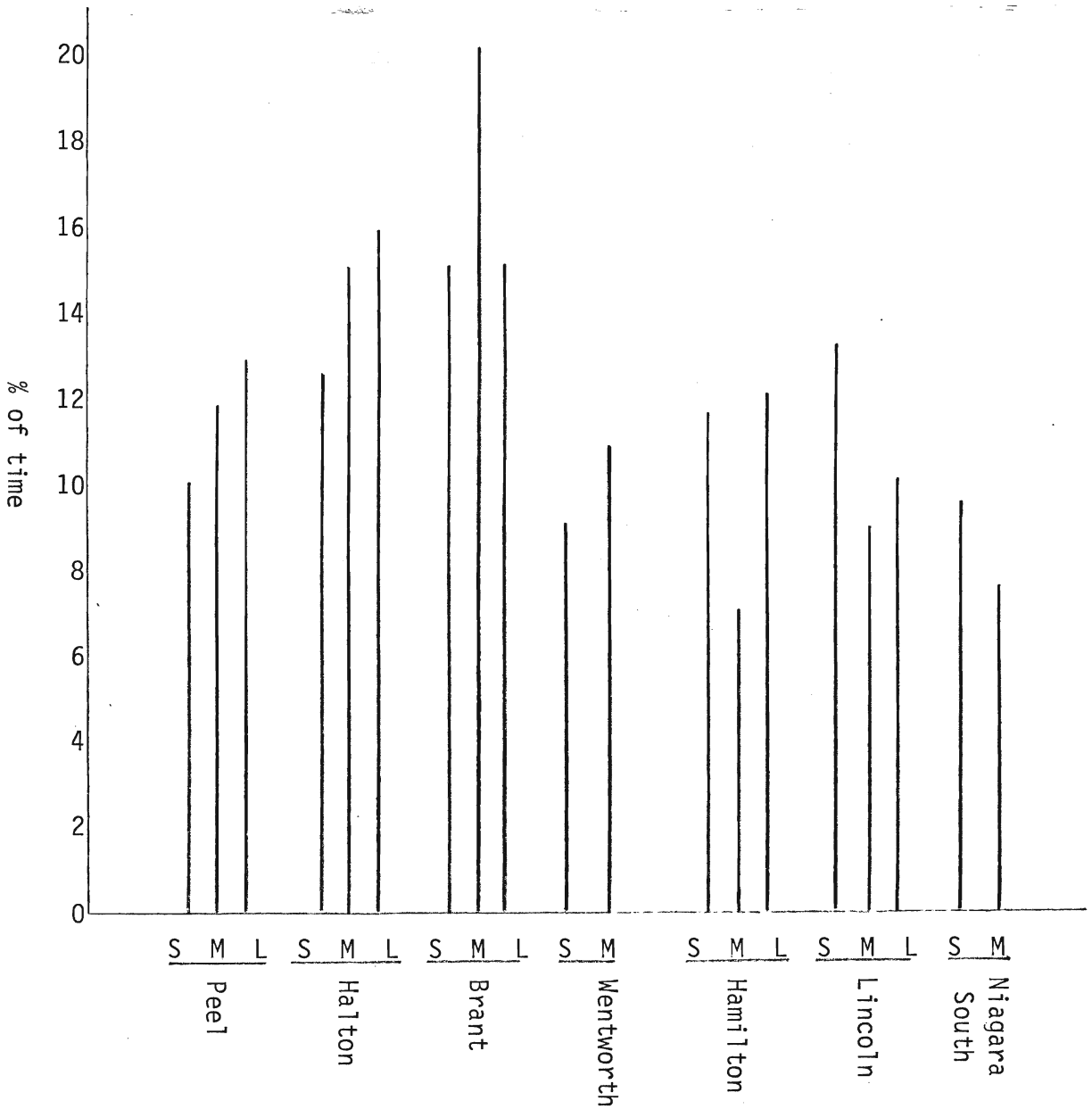


Figure C15: Mean time expenditures in school-community relations in 3 sizes of schools in 7 boards.

S = small
M = medium
L = large

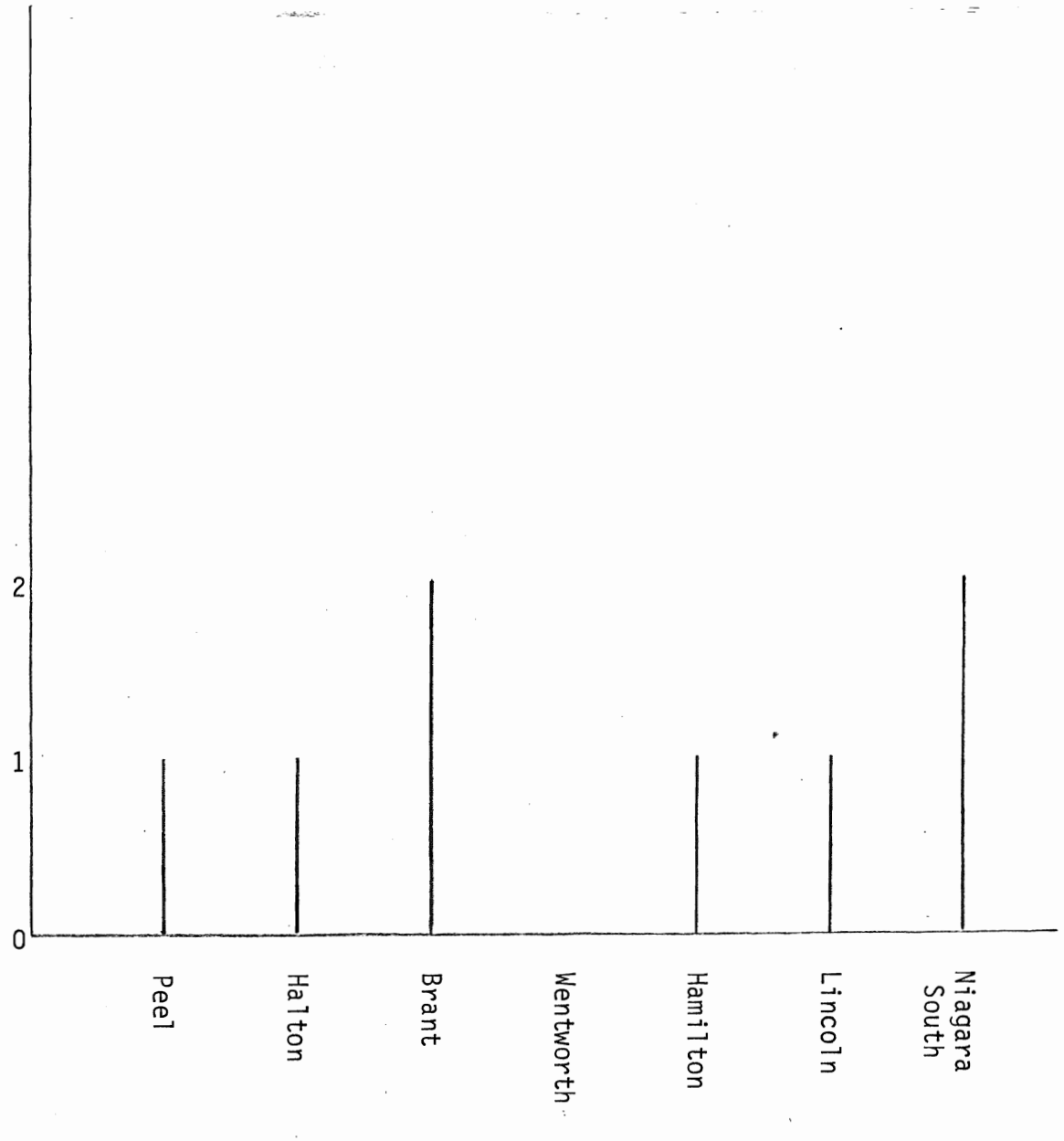


Figure C16: Number of principals with 1 or 2 years experience in 7 boards.

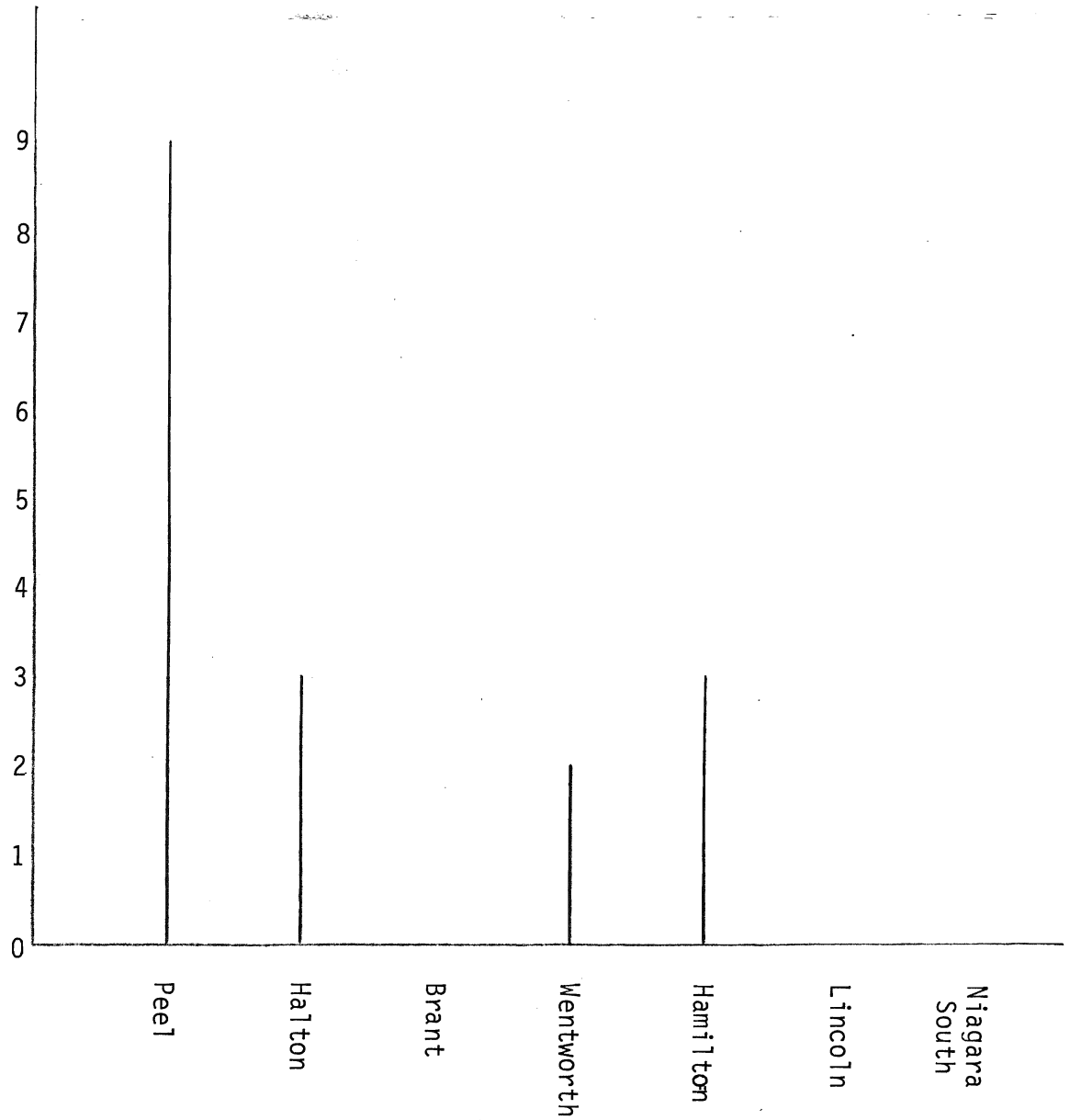


Figure C17: Number of principals with 3 to 5 years experience in 7 boards.

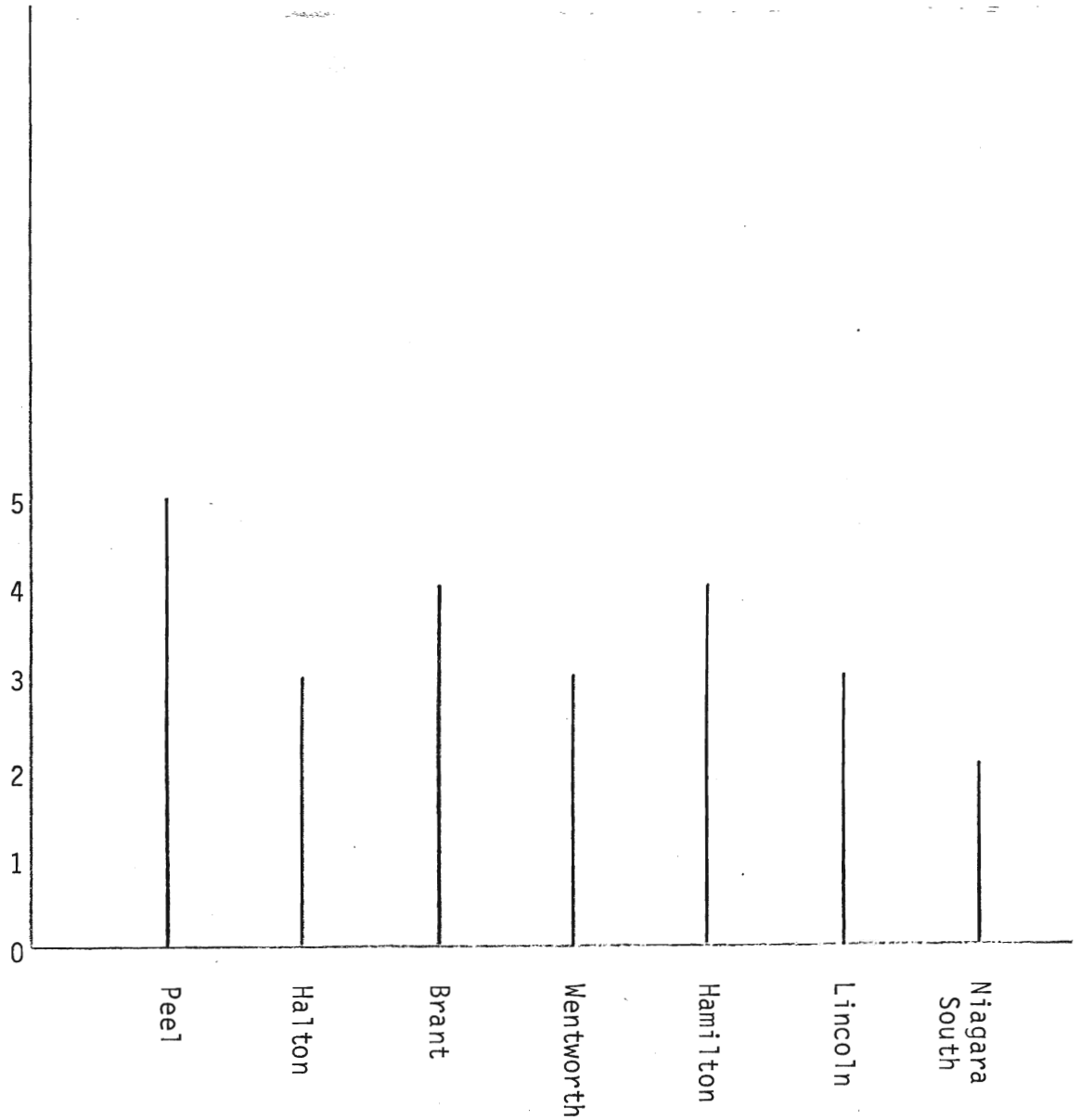


Figure C18: Number of principals with 6 to 10 years experience in 7 boards.

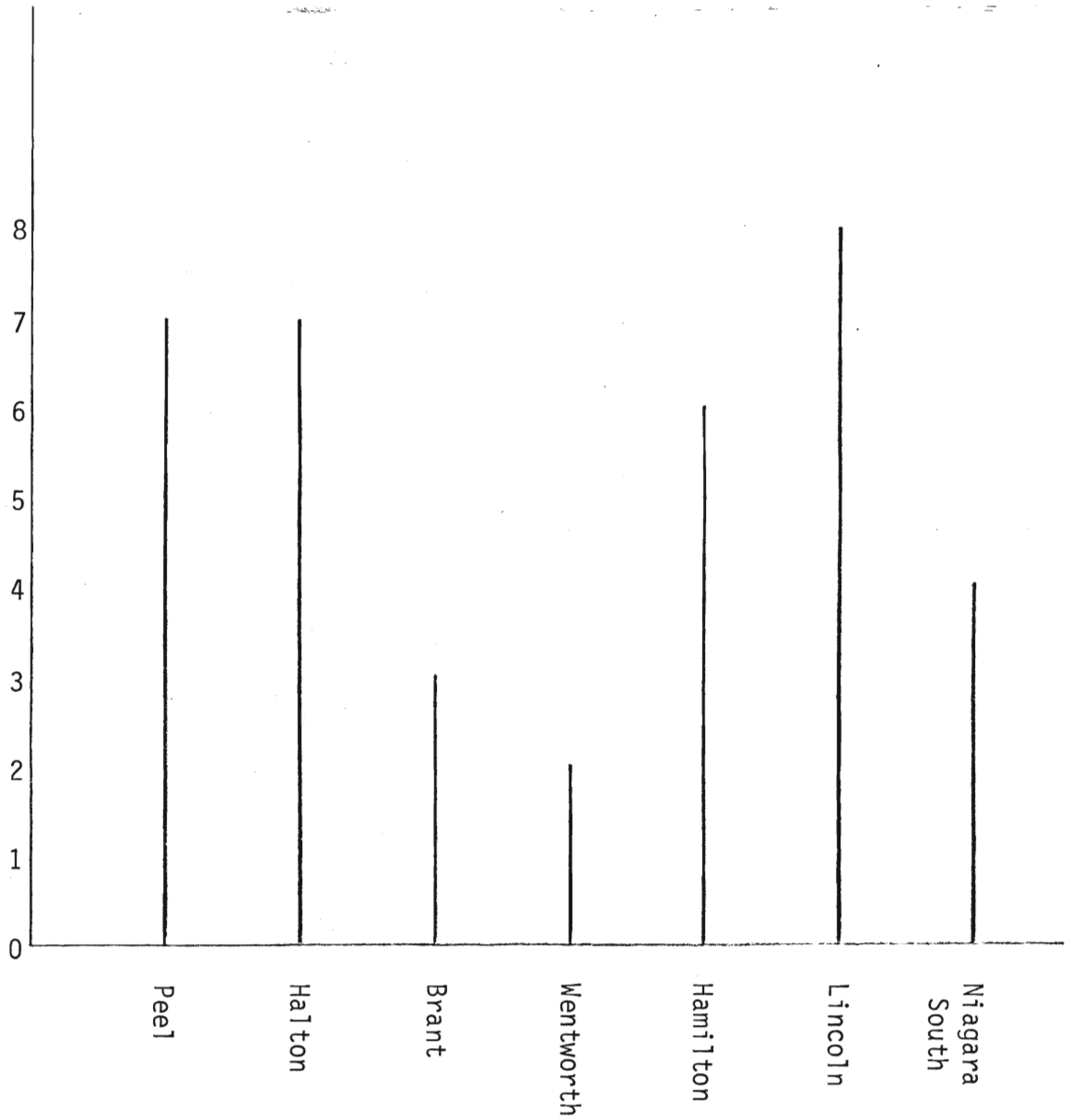


Figure C19: Number of principals with 11 or more years experience in 7 boards.

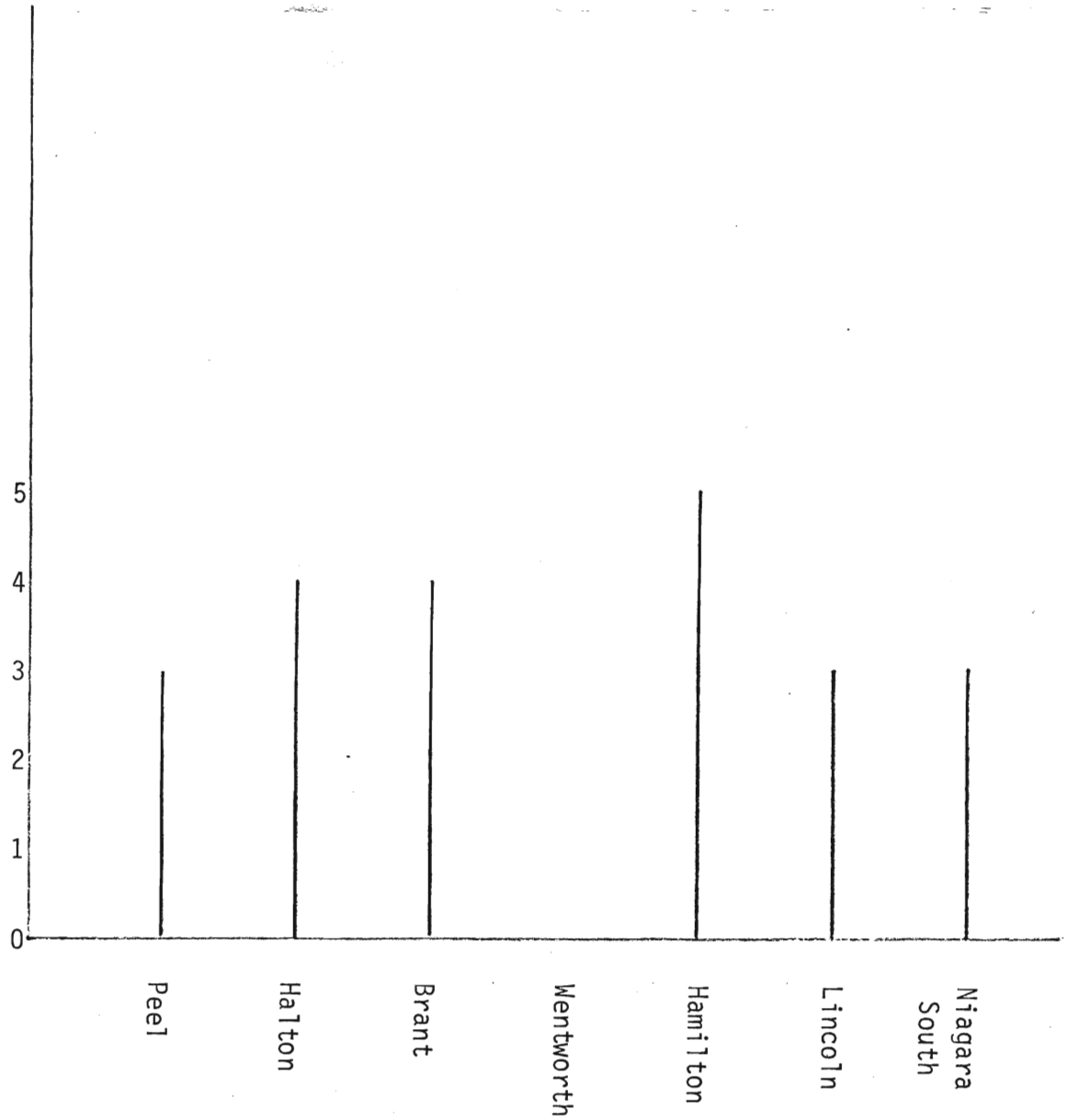


Figure C20: Number of principals with 1 to 2 years tenure in their present schools in 7 boards

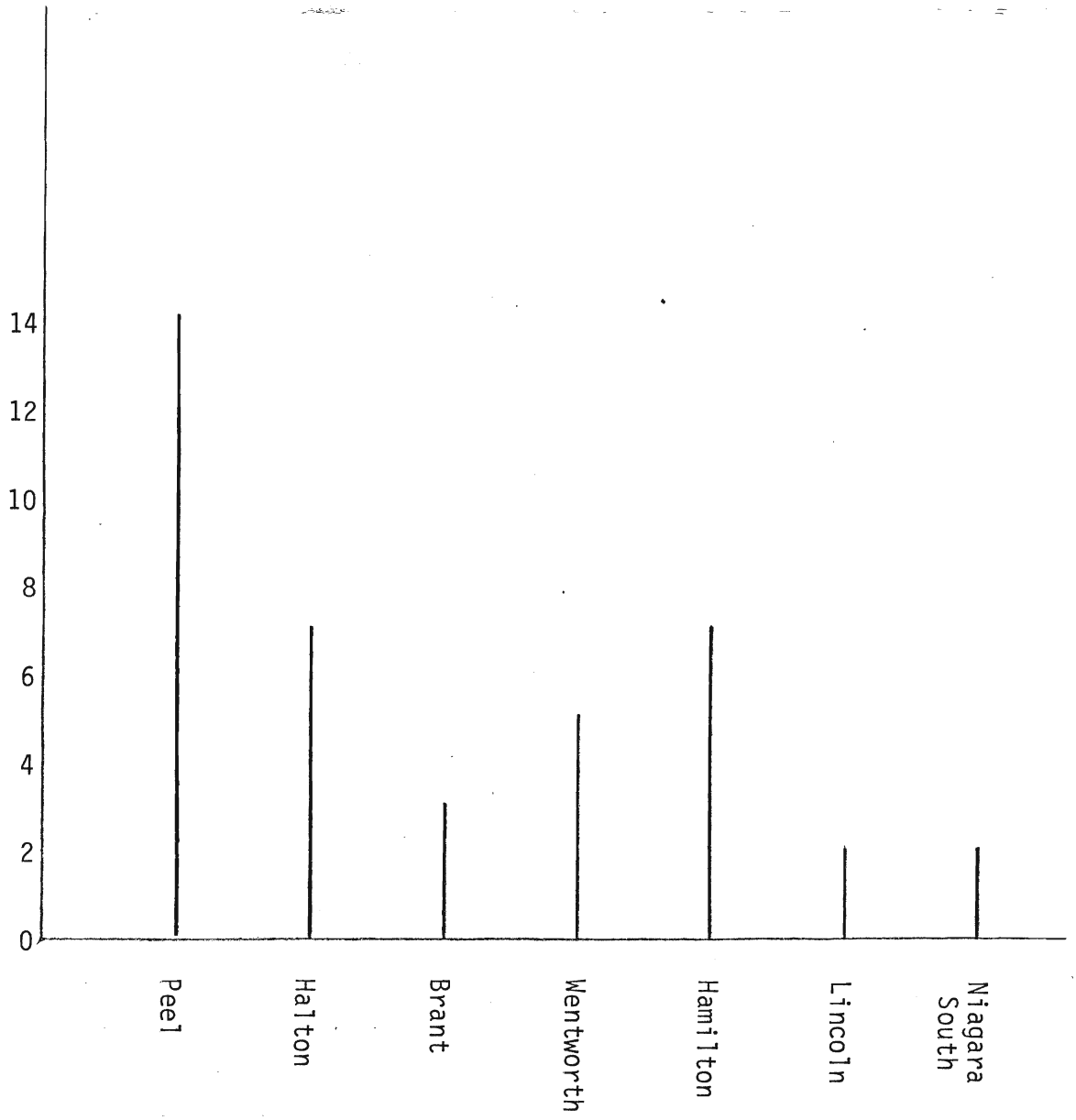


Figure C21: Number of principals with 3 to 5 years tenure in their present schools in 7 boards.

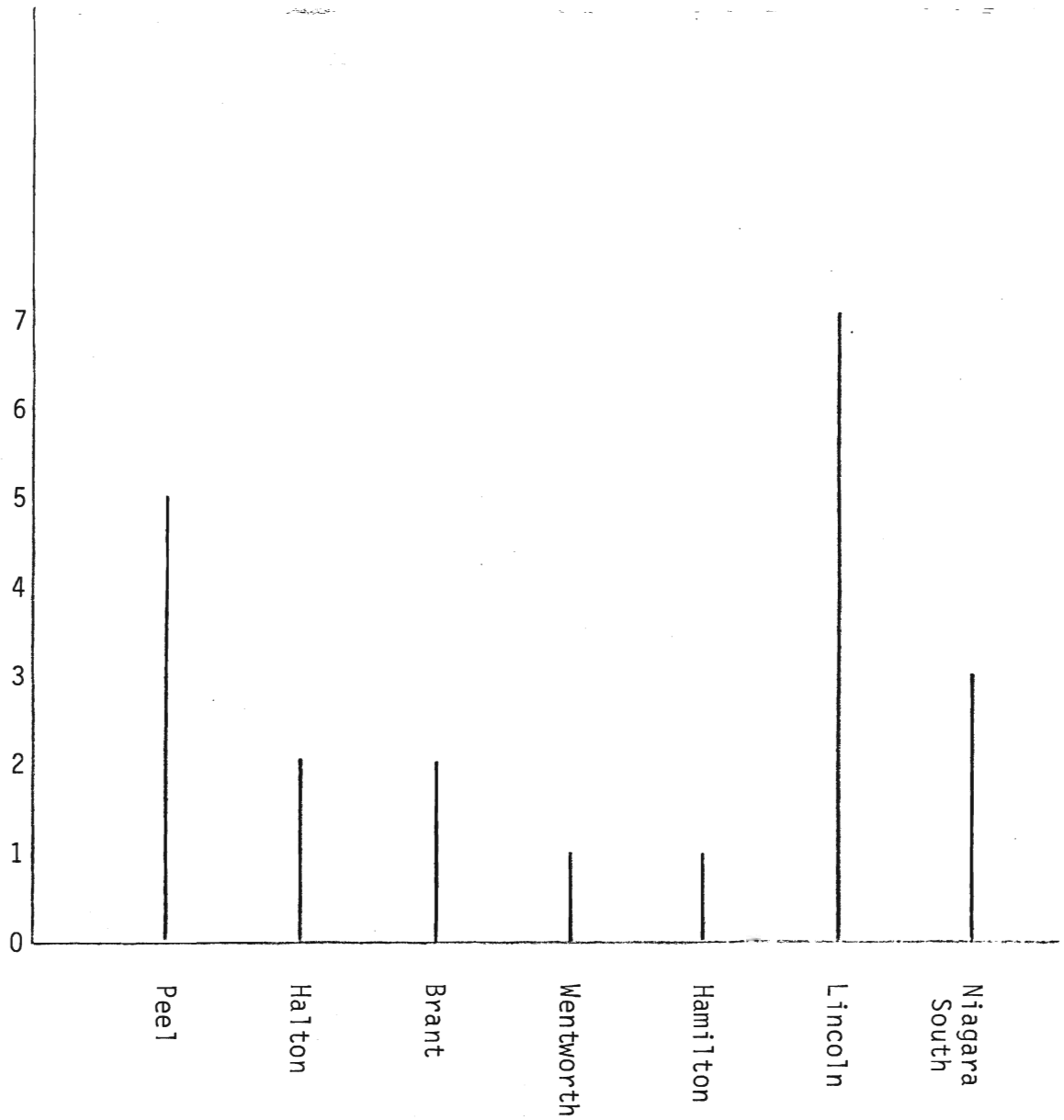


Figure C22: Number of principals with 6 or more years tenure in their present schools in 7 boards.

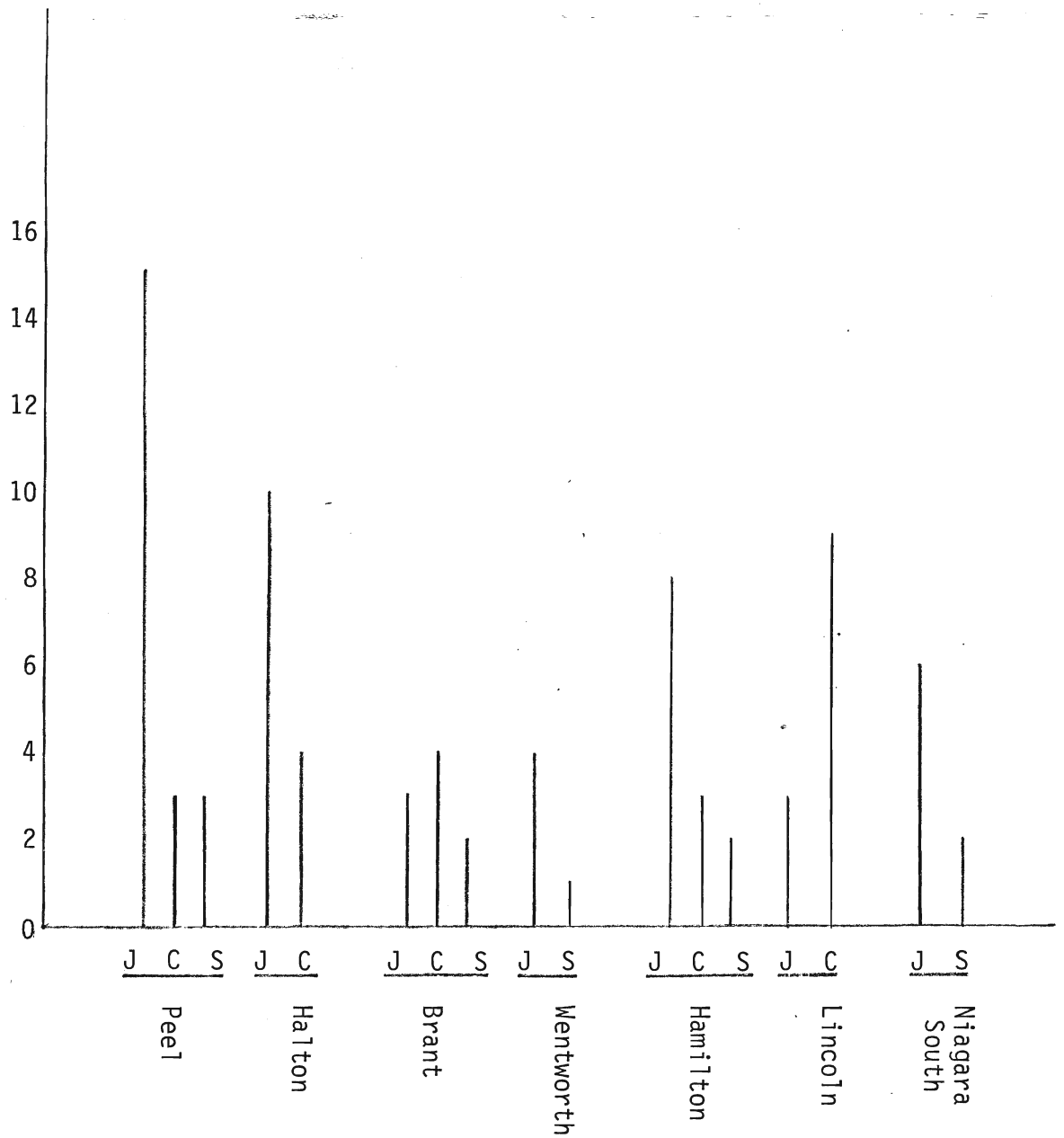


Figure C23: Number of Responses from Principals of Junior (J), Composite (C), and Senior or Middle (S) Schools in 7 boards.

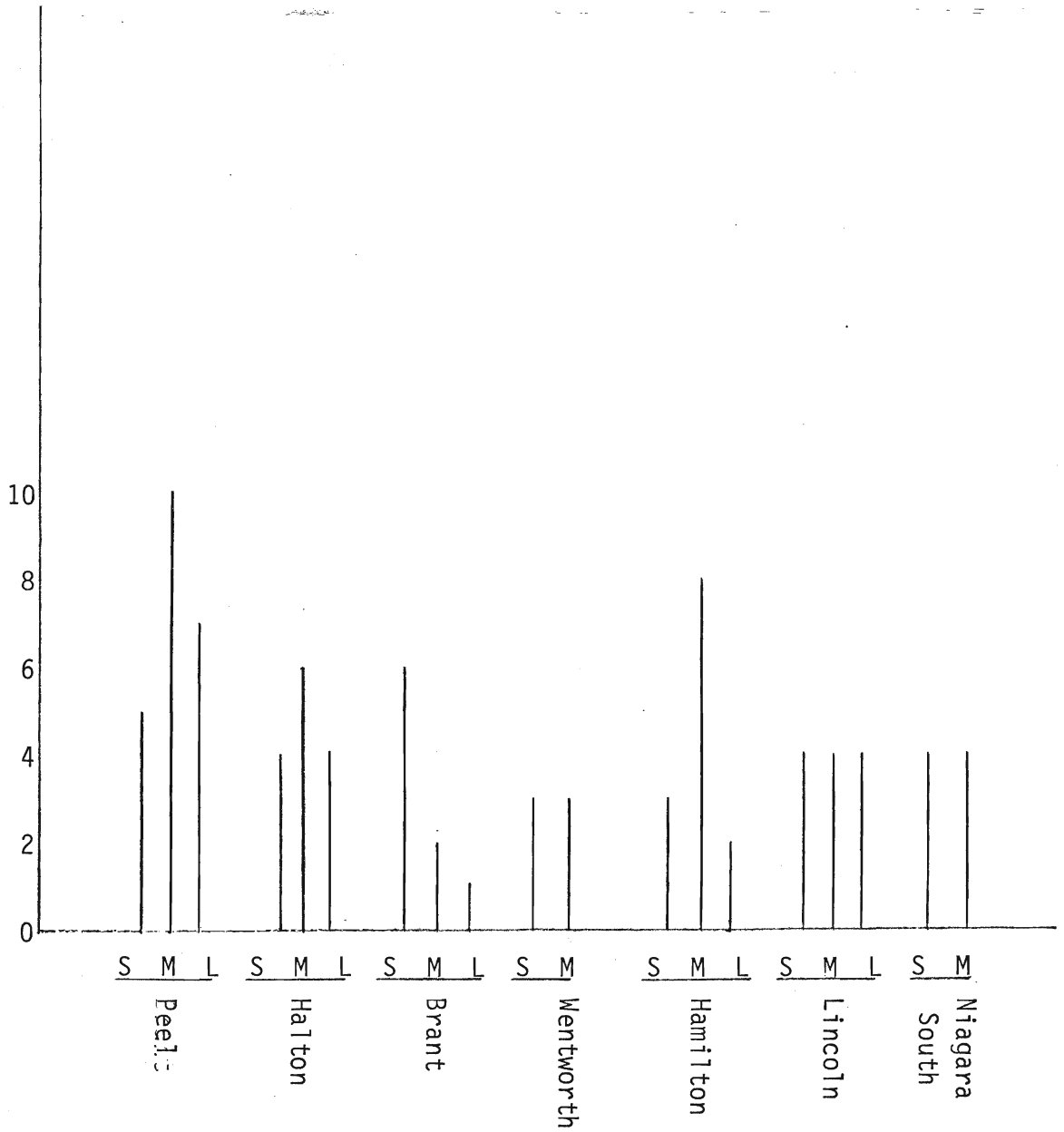


Figure C24: Number of Responses from Principals of Small (S), Medium (M) and Large (L) Schools in 7 boards.

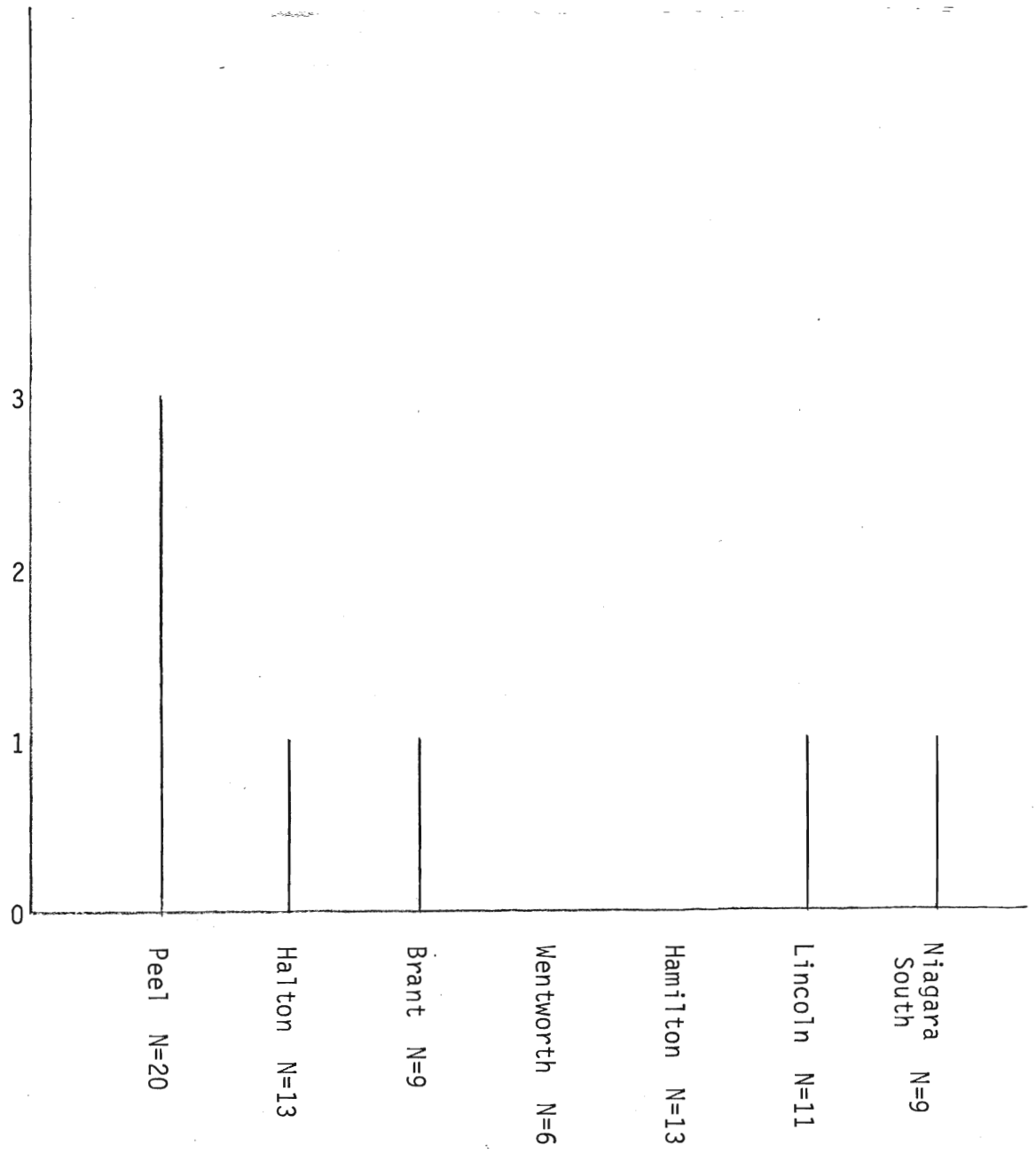


Figure C25: Frequency of choice of business assistant in 7 boards.

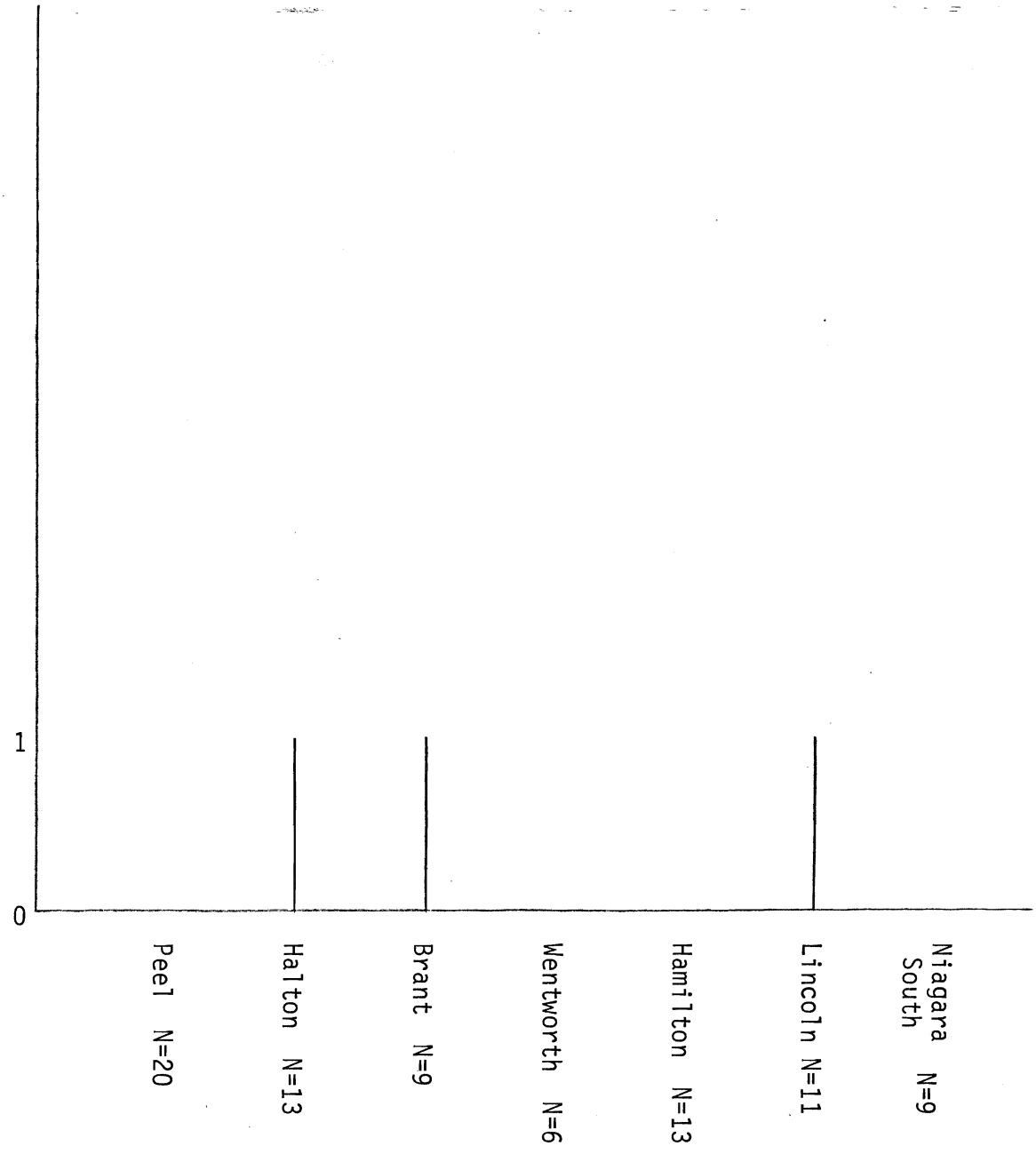


Figure C26: Frequency of choice of clerk in 7 boards.

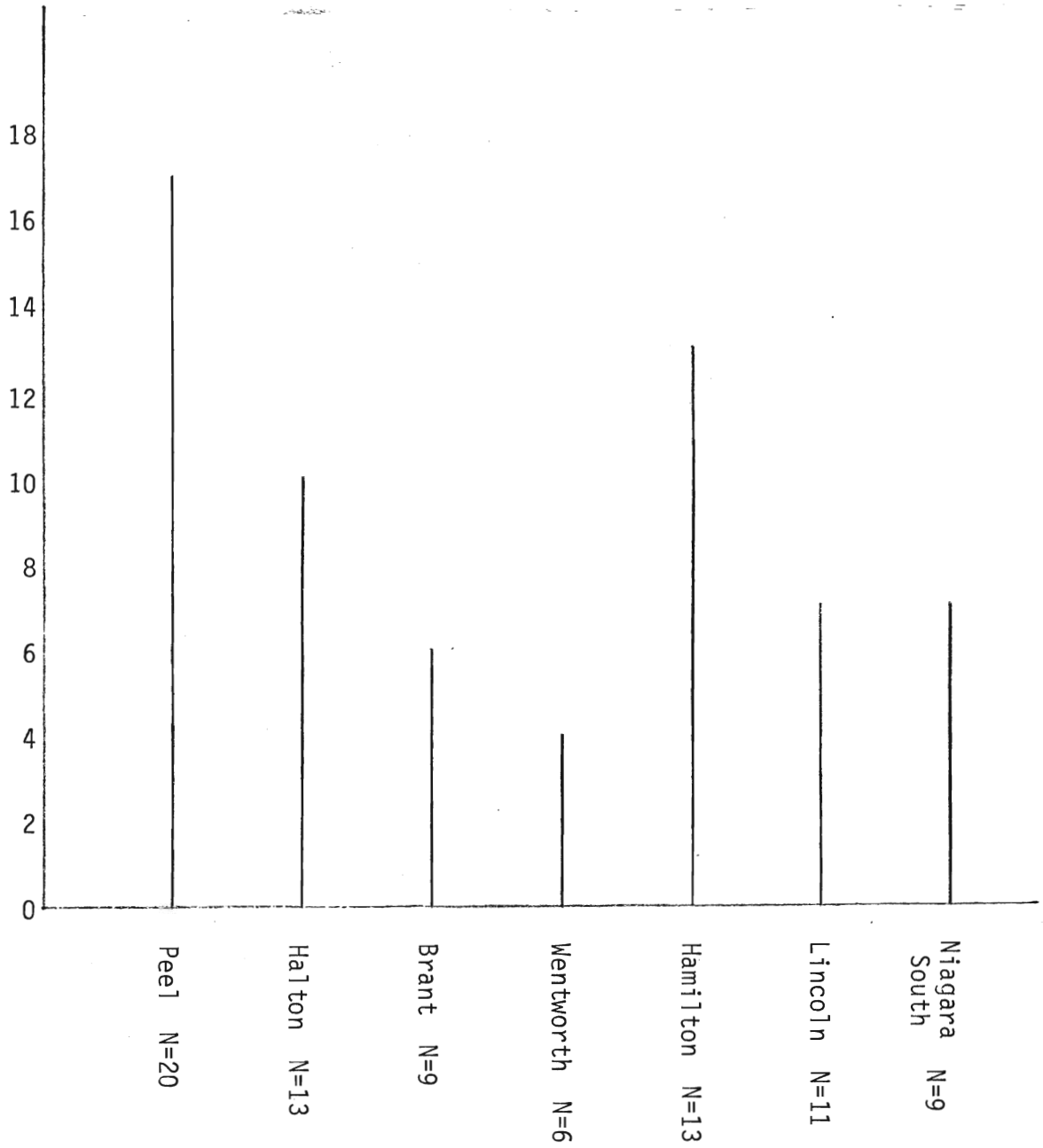


Figure C27: Frequency of choice of curriculum associate in 7 boards.

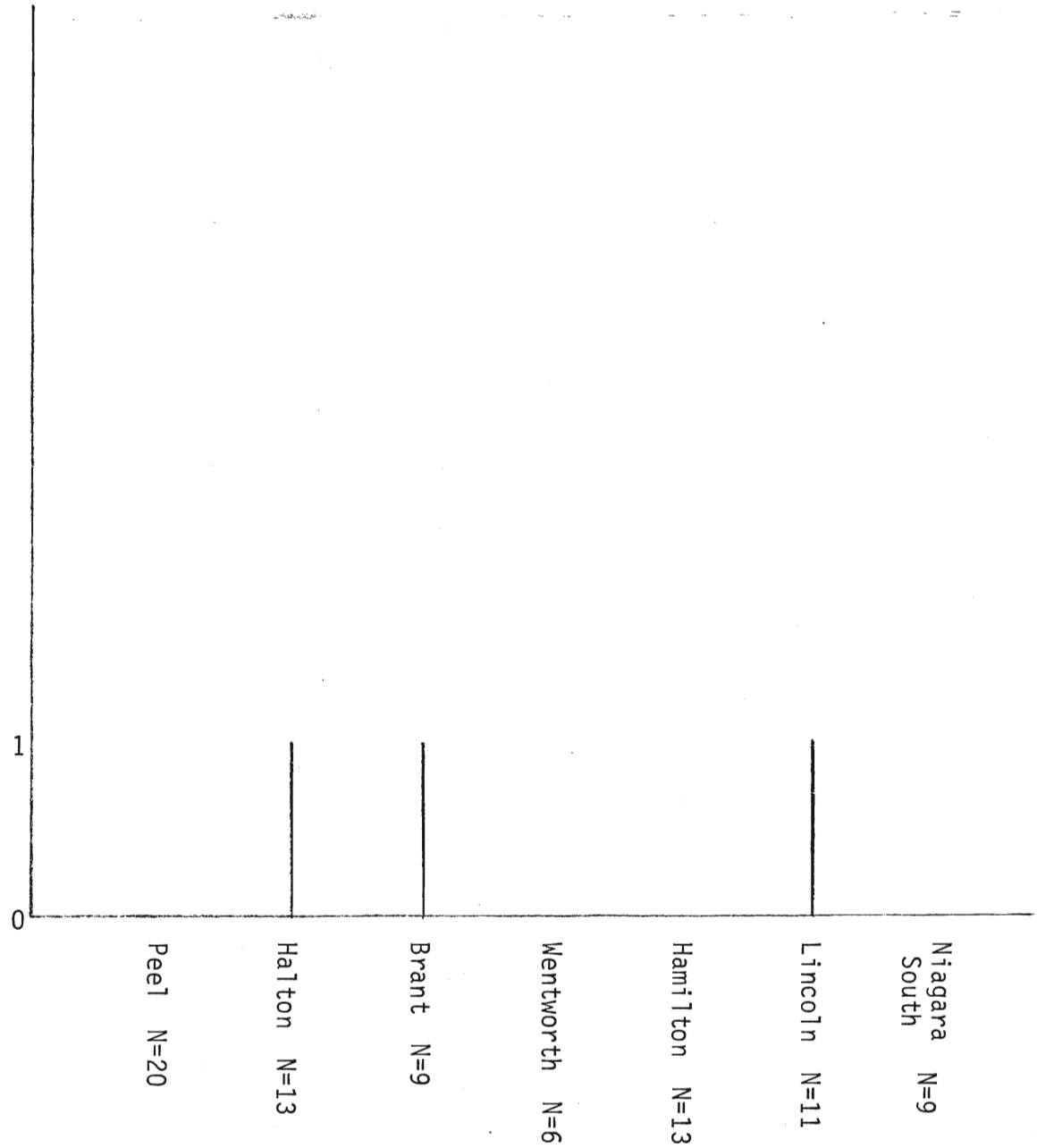


Figure C28: Frequency of choice of personnel administrator in 7 boards.

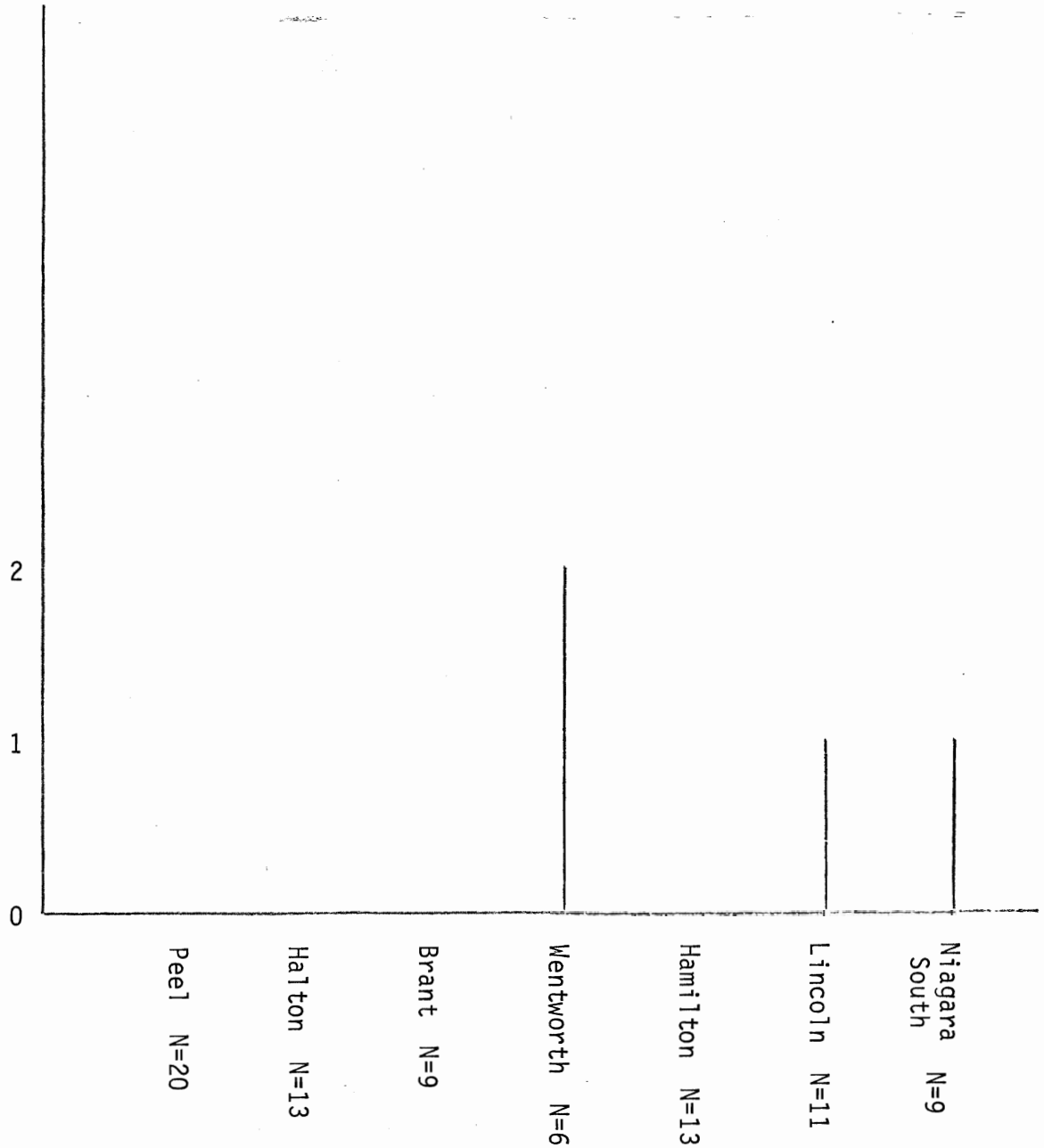


Figure C29: Frequency of choice of research assistant in 7 boards.

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